# APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRD VOLUME

OF

*THE THIRD SERIES*

OF THE

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

*Vol. III.* *No. V.*

ART. I.—*Statistique Générale et Particuliere, &c.*

*Statistic History, both general and particular, of France and its Colonies; with a new topographical, physical, agricultural, political, economical, and commercial Description of the same State. By a Society of Men of Letters and Science. Published by P. E. Herbin.* 7 *vols.* 8*vo. with an Atlas in* 4*to.* 4*l.* 4*s.* Imported by De Boffe.

A HISTORY of this nature, to whatever country it may appertain, cannot but be highly useful, both at home and abroad, provided it be accurately and ably conducted, and that the country to which it relates is sufficiently established in its government, its colonies, its internal produce, and commerce, to give some degree of permanency to its *data* and results. Whether the variable administration of France, distracted as it has been for the last fifteen years by every species of civil dissention and anarchy; which has been exhibited under every shape that the administration of a state can possibly assume, and in no shape has given satisfaction either to itself or the world at large; which has shifted from a kingly to a republican, from a republican to an imperial, form, and has run through all the changes of monarchy, faction, federalism, consulate, dictatorship, and empire; whose present dynasty is unconfirmed in its authority at home, and unsanctioned by the most powerful foreign states; whose present population and colonisation are uncertain, whose internal industry is but just beginning to

repair the dilapidations of its late civil enormities, and whose commerce is almost annihilated by an existing war;—whether, we say, such an administration be favourable to the due execution of such a work, at such a period, requires, we think, no long or laborious exertion of the judgement to determine; yet the work is written, and, ephemerous as must necessarily be many of its positions, it is our duty to examine them, and offer a brief statement of its history and contents.

Were the times and the state of the country propitious to the undertaking, we know of no man better qualified to superintend it than M. Herbin; who for several years has been engaged in statistic inquiries of a more local nature; who took the lead in the plan for regulating the present districts of justices of the peace, at the express desire of the government of the day; and afterwards, under the same authority, drew up a statistic history of the different departments, from such documents as the various prefects were able to furnish him with.

'The statistic history of France,' says he, 'such as the plan I have proposed to myself will exhibit it, is in a manner an inventory of all its productions, whether of soil or industry; an actual representation of whatever exists, and a table of the improvements which yet remain to be introduced into all the branches of our system of rural, commercial, and political economy, in order to circulate, through every class of society, a greater accumulation of riches.

'In fact it is not only advantageous to be acquainted with the situation of a state, its internal divisions, and topography; but it is necessary also that the people should be apprised of the form of government under which they live; the mode by which justice is distributed, and by which the different branches of administration are regulated; the organisation and state of its land and sea forces; what are the distinctive manners and character of the nation; what have been, and what constitute, its advances in the sciences, polite letters, and arts; in what manner public instruction is communicated; what forms the produce of its soil and of industry; what its exports and imports; what establishments or colonisations it possesses in different parts of the globe, &c. It is impossible not to perceive the utility of just and positive *data* on all these important points, in order to ascertain the rank of different states among the nations."

In the pursuit of this extensive design, the voluminous work before us is distributed into twelve grand compartments. Of these the first offers us the old, and afterwards the new, civil, military, financial, and ecclesiastical divisions, together with the relation which the latter bears to the former. We have next an examination of the surface and extent of the soil and

forests, whether national, communal, or private, throughout every department, as well by the old as the new measures. 3dly. An estimate of the different climates, nature of the soil, and state of agriculture; as also of vegetable, animal, and mineral productions. 4thly, Of the population, as well ancient as modern, and in respect of district, sexes, births, and deaths; with tables of longevity. 5thly, Of industry, manufactures, and fabrications; of the state of the exports and imports; and of commercial and political diplomacy. 6thly, Of the new regulation of the coin; of weights and measures compared with the old. 7thly, Of the high roads, internal and maritime navigation, courses of streams, rivers, and canals. 8thly, Of the public instruction, sciences, polite letters and arts, monuments, public buildings, and mineral waters. 9thly, Of the form of the *existing* government, and its administrative, financial, judicial, military, maritime, and forest systems. 10thly, Of the revenue; of seignoral, transferable, personal, and sumptuary contributions; of the duties on doors, windows, and patents; of the charge of administration, the judicial courts, and public instruction, considered in relation to every separate department. 11thly, Of the national character, manners, religion, land and sea forces. 12thly, Of the political, agricultural, and commercial state of every French possession and colony in both the Indies and Africa.

This plan is sufficiently full, but it might have been better arranged; it is rather comprehensive than systematic. Few readers would expect to meet with an account of the *mineral waters* in the division allotted to public instruction, national monuments and edifices; nor are the regulations for public medicine, and the department of officers of health, by any means perspicuously designated.

In a long preliminary discourse, drawn up by M. Peuchet, one of the contributors to the present work, we have an ample, and to us a *tedious*, account of the difficulties attendant upon every plan that pretends to offer a statistic history of a country, together with an extensive survey of what the author conceives to be the best writings upon this subject, whether French or foreign. M. Peuchet seems to have studied hard, but not always in the best company. In France his chief authorities are Bois-Guilbert, Vauban, and Expilly, all old writers; but the political opinions of those of later date, and especially of the economists, render them objects of disapprobation, if not of contempt, to the more enlightened politician of the present day. Busching, of all foreign writers, seems to have excited the chief object of our author's attention; and the only modern Englishman whose name is honourably adverted to is Mr. Arthur Young, with whose tour through France M. Peuchet appears

to have been particularly pleased, and which he characterises as the first work that has ever attempted to offer a real idea of the agriculture and productions of France. The names of Kershoom, Nicholas, Bernouilli, Halley, Hoeck, Vargartin, and Storck, are incidentally mentioned, but their labours are not particularly appreciated. It is, as we suppose, from this contempt of all modern publications and systems that we find our old countrymen Petty, Davenant, Grant, and Guthrie, dragged out of their graves, in which they have been so long consigned to peaceful oblivion, to figure away in this *modern* compilation, while the names of Smith, Price, and lord Stair, are studiously concealed from notice.

'The spirit of encyclopedism,' says M. Peuchet, 'is injurious to the progress of the sciences; it extends the surface at the expense of the depth: still would they be in a state of infancy, if some few men of genius had not undertaken to appropriate to themselves the study of one science alone, and merely pretended to the glory of probing it to its very basis.'

A judicious monosophist, to whatever line his attention is directed, is entitled to the praise of the community; but his labours would be isolated, and of little use, without the assistance of a man of more general science, who rears the warehouse for his productions, extracts the pure ore from his pyrite, finds a use for the materials with which he is loaded, carries them to market, and procures a purchaser. Nothing, perhaps, has given to civilised nations so extensive a taste for science as well-regulated scientific dictionaries and cyclopedias; and when the taste becomes generally diffused, it is certainly to be expected that more persons will be led by natural inclination to the scientific pursuit of individual subjects, than if no such taste had been propagated. Independently of which, the charge before us comes with a most ungracious appearance, from an association of men of letters who are themselves engaged in a work so vast in its design, and numerous in its classifications, that it cannot be regarded otherwise than as an encyclopedia on pantology, although not alphabetically arranged.

Towards the close of this discourse we are favoured with the names of this literary phalanx, which consists, independently of MM. Herbin and Peuchet—the former of whom has undertaken the topography and population of the country, its weights, measures, coinage, and banking system; its religion, morals, political order, or government properly so called, finance, military and maritime departments, together with many other subjects; and the latter its diplomacy, navigation, and commerce—of M. Sonnini, who has furnished the articles relative to the soil and productions; M. Delalauze, who has

given a more practical account of its agriculture at the present moment; M. Gorsse, who has written the mineral branch of the work, and chiefly contributed to the Atlas; M. Amaury Duval, who is responsible for the subject of public instruction, consisting of the public schools, arts, and sciences; M. Dumuys, who has contributed the account of the public monuments; and MM. Parmentier and Deyeux, who have provided the history and tables of the mineral waters.

From this voluminous mass of matter, valuable in its subject, and often valuable from the mode of treating it, we can only select detached passages as specimens of the general merit of the work, or as affording notices of peculiar curiosity or entertainment, and offer such casual observations upon them as the recollection of the moment, or other documents immediately at hand, may suggest. From the chapter on the population of France we shall copy the following statements, which comprise the number of inhabitants both in its old and its present form of government.

'To the period in which M. Necker determined uncertainties by investigations, of which he published the results, there was much variation in the estimates of the population of ancient France.

'Mirabeau the father, in 1754, calculated the population of France at 18,000,107 souls; the abbé D'Expilly, in 1772, rated it at 22,014,357; the celebrated Buffon fixed it, at the same epoch, at 21,672,777; M. Necker's estimation, in 1785, advanced it to 24,676,000; in 1789 M. Bouvallet-Desbrosses calculated it at 27,957,267; finally, in 1791, the committee of division of the constituent assembly valued it, in the first instance, at 28,000,896; but a second attempt, at the command of the same assembly, reduced it to 26,363,074.

'The bureau of Cadastre, whose result was published by M. Prony, extended, in the year 6, the actual population of France, including Corsica, to 31,123,218, *viz.*

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| 26,048,254 | Inhabitants on the domain of ancient France. |
| 3,511,055 | Ditto by the re-union of the province of Avignon, of Savoy, of the county of Nice, of Porentruy, of the hitherto named Low Countries, and of the territory of Genoa. |
| 1,563,909 | Ditto by the re-union of the countries situated between the Rhine and the Moselle. |
| 31,123,218 | Total of inhabitants. |

'M. Dépère in his report recited Brumaire 7, year 7, to the

council of five hundred, estimated it at 33,501,694 inhabitants of every age and sex, to wit,

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| 28,810,694 | Inhabitants on the territory of ancient France. |
| 3,094,000 | Ditto by the re-union of the heretofore named Low Countries, of Savoy, of the county of Nice, of Porentruy, and the province of Avignon. |
| 33,000 | Ditto by the re-union of the territory of Geneva. |
| 1,564,000 | Ditto by the re-union of the departments situate on the left bank of the Rhine. |
| 33,501,694 | Total of inhabitants. |

'The return of the statements transmitted in the years 9 and 10 to the ministers of justice and the interior, by the prefects, upon which was founded the labour of reducing the justices of peace, and fixing the number of members for the electoral colleges of the arondissments, and the departments, in determining the contingents to nominate by each cantonal assembly in the number of the members of the electoral colleges allotted to each arondissment, and department, after the population, and the resolutions of the organic *senatûs-consultum* of *Thermidor* 16, year 10 (August 4, 1802). This return gives a general population of 33,111,962 individuals of every age and sex. But this population has since been augmented by 1,864,351 individuals, in consequence of the re-union of Piedmont and the island of Elba, accomplished by organic *senatûs-consulta* of the 8th and 24th *Fructidor*, year 10 (August 26, and September 11, 1802), which number raises the general total to 34,976,313 souls.

'It is possible, and even probable, that there is some difference between this total and the real number of the inhabitants of France; but it is the best established of any we possess at the present moment. It would be easy to rectify it by the ingenious tables of the change of population which have been addressed by M. Duquesnoy, chief of the statistic bureau, to the minister of the interior; and which the prefects are bound to fill up, and transmit to the minister every three months.'

We do not think this aggregate very inconsistent with the real fact; if any thing, it over-rates the number by a few thousands, in consequence of allowing too large a population to the united countries. The *political* strength of France, however, is by no means limited within the bounds of its *territorial*; for such is its controul over Holland, Switzerland, and the Italian republic, that these countries may almost be regarded as contributing to its general integrity; without noticing the indirect in-

fluence which it possesses over all the rest of Italy, Spain, and the majority of the German states. The power hence acquired is, indeed, colossal, and nothing but the total destruction of its marine, during the course of the last war, prevents it from being more than a match for our own country. This is a loss which, with all the resources of industry, and an uninterrupted series of peace to enable its resources to be carried into effect, it can never hope to recover for at least half a century; of course never during the lifetime of its present ambitious ruler. And it cannot fail to excite the surprise of future generations when they behold this gigantic power, headed by the most turbulent and enterprising warrior of the age, pent up on every side by the floating batteries of a people destitute *(perhaps)* of all continental connections, and containing not more than a third part of the aggregate of its inhabitants, bursting with threats which it dares not execute, and projecting plans of invasion, while the fleets it possesses are blocked up in its own ports, and not a gun-boat or skiff can navigate its coasts in safety.

The following extract gives us the most accurately presumed statement of the different classes of society in France, with respect to the proportions they reciprocally bear to the above general aggregate.

'The economists busily applied themselves to calculations which ought to afford us results upon this important subject; but we do not perceive that the government ever particularly interfered in it, although it might be rendered a concern of very great utility.

'We find, nevertheless, in a statement drawn up by the committee of division of the constituent assembly, that it calculated that the population of 26,363,074 inhabitants was divided into the following two classes:

'20,593,530 inhabitants of the country, and 5,769,470 inhabitants of cities; but no mention is made of the basis on which this estimation rests. M. Bouvalles-Desbrosses, in his work on the Resources and Wealth of France, carries the population to 27,957,267 inhabitants, of whom he allots 20,645,335 to the country, and 7,311,832 to the cities.

'By the first calculation of the committee of division of the constituent assembly, we have nearly a half-third less than a third of the entire population assigned to the cities; or, in other words, the city population is to that of the country population as 1 to $3^{1}$.

'By following the opinion of the author of the Resources and Wealth of France, we possess six-sevenths less than a half of the entire population for the cities, and the rest for the country; or, in other words, the city population is as that to the country as 1 to $2\frac{6}{7}$.

'The sagacious Lavoisier distributes, in the following

manner, the population of France into different classes of society:

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| "Population of cities and large towns (in which number are not included the cultivators of land, who may reside in such town and cities) | 8,000,000 |
| "Workmen, husbandmen, servants, poultry-feeders, &c. shepherds, men, women, and children inclusive - - - | 6,000,000 |
| "Day labourers employed in threshing during the winter, and in mowing and reaping during the summer; hedgers and ditchers, builders, and others (including their families) living at the charge of agriculture - - | 4,000,000 |
| "Vintagers and their families - - | 1,750,000 |
| "Bailiffs of vintagers, and proprietors of vineyards - - - - | 800,000 |
| "Shopkeepers, publicans, higlers, farriers, sadlers, wheelwrights, living at the charge of agriculture, men, women, and children | 1,800,000 |
| "Small proprietors living principally on the produce of their estates - - | 450,000 |
| "Sailors, day labourers of every kind employed in country manufactories, quarry-men, miners, posthouse-keepers, carriers, nobles, ecclesiastics, and their domestics, residing in the country - - - - | 1,950,000 |
| "French army - - - | 250,000 |
| 'Total according to M. Lavoisier's estimation | 25,000,000 |

'It results from this sketch of M. Lavoisier, that the classification of the city population must be to that of the country, including all those who, though residing in cities, are concerned in agriculture, as 8 is to 17, or as 1 to rather more than $2\frac{1}{8}$.'

The basis on which this calculation of M. Lavoisier reposes we know not; it is not even glanced at in the work before us; but, admitting it to be true, we do not apprehend that any material difference has taken place since its date, excepting in the amount of the French army, which has been so much augmented that its increase ought not to have remained unnoticed. Admitting this as a fact, it is astonishing to observe the difference between the distribution of the inhabitants of France and of our own country. With us all are concentrated either into cities or towns of nearly equal magnitude; and hence, while in France the inhabitants of this description do not reach a third of the whole population, with ourselves they considerably exceed

one half; and that while our entire population does not reach a third, our manufacturers double, and our sailors treble, those of the French territories. In our army, on the contrary, so far as relates to the regular troops, we are considerably below the proportion of number to number; but the militia, sea-fencibles, and volunteers, far more than counterbalance the deficit as a defensive force, though we are still incapable of offensive operations upon any grand scale, and with any common portion of prudence. It is even questionable, notwithstanding the brilliant success with which it was ultimately crowned, whether our late expedition to Egypt be justifiable upon this last point? It is not generally known, that diminutive as was the number that composed it in comparison with the French army in possession of Egypt, this expedition alone, though not extending to 20,000 troops, so far emptied the island of its standard army, that there were not enough left behind to man the different fortresses; which, in case of invasion, must of course have been entrusted to the militia. Had the prospect of an invasion at that period been as near and as visible as it was a few months ago, no minister would have dared to think of sparing a man, in spite of the triumphant aspect of our fleet. The expedition, however, fortunately for us, was adventured upon, notwithstanding the double imprudence of leaving our own coasts insufficiently guarded against a sudden descent, and of opposing it, through an unpardonable ignorance of the amount of the hostile army, to an enemy that very considerably surpassed it in point of number, and which was completely in possession of the country. The termination of this successful adventure, while it immortalizes the spirit, bravery, and military science of the British army, will never reflect credit upon the sagacity of its projectors.

From the population of the country and the surface of the soil, our authors proceed to its mineralogical productions, which are divided into six classes. 1st. Mineral substances yielding to metals, whether pure or combined with other principles than an acid: 2d. Metallic, terrene, and alkaline salts: 3d. Mineral acids; 4th. Mineral combustibles: 5th. Earths and sands employed in various fabrications, or in agriculture: 6th. Stony matters appropriated to different uses in the arts. Upon this subject we expected a more scientific classification, and a more intimate acquaintance with the discoveries of modern geognosy. The German chemists appear to have been seldom dipped into, and hence the simplifying system of Werner, the accurate researches of Haüy, remain unnoticed in the present work, which seldom exhibits a research beyond the labours of Lavoisier, Beaumé, and Parmentier.

From the article on *tanning*, it does not appear that M. Seguin's method has been so generally followed as many foreign-

ers are apt to conceive: it is here enumerated among the modes employed by different tanners, but by no means with any marked preference, or with an intimation of extensive adoption. It facilitates, as we know from actual experience, the conversion of the hide into leather, but the leather is by no means so durable as when obtained by other processes. Many of the first tanners of our own country, who have visited France for the express purpose of becoming acquainted with M. Seguin's plan, and have carefully practised it after their return home, have since laid it entirely aside, and resumed their former process. They have been equally dissatisfied with the weakness of the ooze, and the impermanency of the leather.

It is to its institutions for public instruction that France has chiefly to look for its future celebrity. At the commencement of the revolution, every polite art and science seemed to be threatened with as utter a destruction as its monarchical government; churches, museums, palaces, and chateaux, were pillaged of every thing valuable, upon which the worse than Vandal mob could lay its sacrilegious hands: statues were tumbled into the dust, monuments subverted, tombs torn open, paintings rent to pieces. The barbarian government itself, however, soon became sensible of the profane outrages to which it had given encouragement, prohibited all further rapine, appointed officers to collect together the mangled and mutilated remains of its own ferocity whenever they could be found, and public buildings to which they should be conveyed. Bonaparte was at this time triumphing in Italy; and, after having robbed it of all its convertible wealth, like another Scipio or Marcellus demanded, as trophies for his country, the most valuable monuments of genius, taste, and erudition, which Italy had to boast of. The French nation were enraptured with the rich and unexpected treasure they thus possessed; a new sense of elegance, and a new love of letters, seemed to awaken throughout the country; and, as though to atone for the injuries it had committed, the government immediately applied itself, and seemed to strain every effort to advance the dominion of arts, sciences, and literature. Hence, independently of a prytaneum, or general school for education, both civil and military, with its six dependent and provincial colleges, the government has progressively instituted a *college of France*, as it is called, or Lyceum for bringing different studies to perfection; a school for natural history; various schools for medicine and veterinary surgery; institutions for the deaf and dumb and the blind; a special school for the study of the Oriental languages; a school for the study of archæology; one for that of painting, sculpture, and architecture; a conservatory for music; another for arts and trades; various schools for public services, as the polytechnic school, those of land and sea-artillery, of roads and

bridges, of the civil and naval construction of vessels and marine battlements, of mines, and of geographic engineers. Its conservatory establishments of science consist of libraries, botanic gardens, museums of natural history, a board of longitude and observations. To the polite arts are allotted museums for painting, sculpture, &c., and a variety of theatres. Independently of which, we meet with almost an infinity of scientific and literary societies; of which the National Institute takes the lead, as well in mass of general intelligence, as in extent and official pre-eminence. Our author enters into a detailed account of its origin, constitution, and multifarious objects; but with these our readers are already sufficiently acquainted from previous labours of our own. We shall only, therefore, copy the following short paragraph:

'The government protects it with predilection. Every member receives a salary, payable out of the public treasury. This salary for those in advanced life, and who regularly attend its sittings, is from fifteen to sixteen hundred franks, but never exceeds the latter sum. The establishment of this institution was one of the last acts of the celebrated national convention. It should seem that it was desirous, by so useful a foundation, to atone for the too long errors of its bloody administration.'

To this history of the National Institute succeeds a catalogue and character of the most celebrated men in the country in the different ramifications of letters, sciences, and arts: and here every one, whose name has the honour of appearing in the list, meets, as may well be expected, with a due portion of eulogy. We have, in reality, no fair discrimination of talents; the statement is drawn up with a manifest fear of offending by the exposition of defect; and we have hence merit, and nothing but merit. The authors of the work before us have not, of course, neglected either to introduce their own names, or to give a complimentary account of themselves. We can by no means approve of this part of the Statistic History; and as it might have been imprudent, if not dangerous, to have criticised with impartiality, it would have been far wiser to have omitted it altogether, or to have offered a catalogue of names alone, without any appreciation of character whatever. Laharpe, and several others of these *living* ornaments of their country, are already *dead*, and must have been so at the time of the publication of the work; which, in several other instances as well as the present, evinces a want of correct superintendance during its passing through the press. The arcanum, translated by M. Anquetil Duperron, from one of the Hindu vedas, and which he himself denominates *Oupnekhat*, is here carelessly spelt *Oupenack*. *Upanishad*, however, as it was written by our own countryman sir William Jones, would have been a more correct way

of rendering it than even the former of the two. The translator's character, which is short, is thus given: 'Anquetil Duperron, former member of the academy of inscriptions, *profoundly versed* in Indian literature. He has just published the translation of a very ancient and curious book *(Oupenack)*, the manuscript of which was given him during his travels in India.' The precise degree of profundity to which M. Anquetil is versed in *Indian* literature, a term too general to mean any thing definite, we pretend not to know; but we will venture to affirm that he is not so *profoundly versed* as he pretends to be himself. His translation of the Upanishad, lately published, is given in Latin with Greek articles, from a Persian version, translated by order of Dara Shecuh, eldest son of the emperor Shah Jehan; and we have no reason to be dissatisfied with the fidelity of this version of a version. But M. Anquetil has long pretended to a knowledge of *Sanscrit*, the original tongue in which the book was composed; and, in the introduction to his work, modestly tells us, that in his version he derived considerable assistance from this language. If thus acquainted with Sanscrit, why did he not boldly translate from the original Sanscrit itself, without the intervention of a middle tongue? In the controversy between this gentleman and sir William Jones, we well remember that the latter clearly convicted him of being totally ignorant of Sanscrit at *that time*, notwithstanding he then advanced the same pretension to a knowledge of it as at present; and his own Latin version of the Upanishad or Oupnekhat, affords various proofs, upon an attentive perusal, that he knows no more of Sanscrit *now*, than he did formerly. When nothing but praise is to be bestowed, it should be bestowed at least with delicacy, and evince some acquaintance in the panegyrist with the subject of his eulogy.

Among the poets of the present day, Delille is justly regarded as entitled to be noticed first. Some opinion may be formed of that restraint under which we have already observed that the present writers labour, as well as of their regard for *religion* of every kind, from the following character of M. Parny:

'His poem on the War of the Gods*, has procured him many admirers and many enemies. This great work, in which we cannot but remark its delicious episodes and bewitching spirit, but whose obscenities it is to be wished were *retrenched*, appeared under circumstances little favourable to its success. We were endeavouring to re-establish a religion which the poem ridicules. The work was blamed; but every body read the work.'

Such is the softened and palliated character, presented in the

* See our last Appendix, page 503.

history before us, of the most blasphemous, the most libidinous, the most obscene poem that perhaps was ever penned; in which awful realities are blended with perposterous fables, and the most sacred mysteries of the Christian religion amalgamated, for the expre s purpose of ridicule, with Jupiter, Juno, Venus, Vulcan, and the whole host of deities that flourish in the heathen mythology!! Our authors justly observe, that this poem was intended to make a mockery of the Christian religion, at the moment when there was a chance of its re-obtaining a triumph over the demons of atheism and infidelity; and the only censure they venture to hint respecting it, is, that it were 'to be wished that its obscenities were *a little modified* or *retrenched*;' —*ou voudrait retrancher les obscenités*. It is rather extraordinary that in the list which is here offered us of musical artists, we do not meet with the name of a single Frenchman among the composers; who are restricted to Pleyel, Steibelt, and Adam, and with that alone of Levasseur among the performers; the rest who are individuated being Kreutzer, Rode, Blasius, Bruni, the powers of all of whom are confined to the violin. Viotti, it seems, has quitted the French territories.

This history of the present state of the science and literature of France terminates with a variety of general observations; in the course of which we are told, in the usual strain of *nostratism* exhibited through the entire work, that 'much indeed is requisite to authorise any writer to adopt an irregular construction, or to give contortions to the national style. The most illustrious writer dares not hazard such an attempt with impunity; the minutest faults which escape him, are immediately appealed against. When the necessity of the case demands new and unusual expressions, they undergo a rigid examination before their admission, and are never incorporated into the language excepting by the severest laws of the strictest analogy.' Those who have attentively noticed the turgid fanfaronade, the stiff, disjointed inversions, the barbarous and unharmonising terms which have crept into most of the Parisian publications since the revolution, and which have nearly produced a new style and a new nomenclature, cannot be surprised to learn that our authors almost immediately afterwards observe, that 'Racine, Voltaire, and Rousseau, will *ever* have more readers than Shakspeare, Milton, and Klopstock.'

*(To be continued.)*

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ART. II.—*Annales de Chymie. (Continued from Vol. II. p. 524.) Annals of Chemistry. No.* 139—141 *inclusive.*

WE are now arrived at the forty-seventh volume of this excellent work; and the first article which we find, is entitled

'Philosophical Enquiries on this Question,—What is the Influence of Oxidation on the Electricity manifested by the Voltaic Pile? By M. Biot.'—It is well known, that the metallic plates which compose the pile, are oxidated in the process; and it is doubtful, whether this oxidation is essential to the operation. Three questions have, on this subject, been proposed: the first is, 'Does the electricity, manifested by the pile, depend wholly on the oxidation of the metals, or, in general, on the oxidable substances of which the apparatus is composed? Or, secondly, does this electricity depend wholly on the contact of heterogeneous metals, or the substances employed instead of them, modified by their conducting power? Or, thirdly, does this electricity depend, at the same time, on the contact of the substances, and the oxidation they experience; and, in this case, can the ratio of the two causes be appreciated?' These questions are examined at some length. The oxidation of the metals is found to have a very inconsiderable effect. In examining the two other questions, our author seems to have shown, in general, that the chemical changes produce a very small charge of electricity. The charges in a great measure depend on the nature of the interposed liquids, with respect to their conducting powers, and their peculiar action on the electricity of the metals, by contact alone, and on the varieties in the construction of the pile in both views. The author proposes to continue the subject by an exact determination of the conducting powers of different fluids, and the relative proportion of the power of different plates employed in the Voltaic pile.

'A Memoir on the reciprocal Action of several volatile Oils with some Saline Substances. By M. Margueron.'—This author published, in the twenty-first volume of the Annals, some observations respecting the action of cold on different volatile oils, and an examination of the concretions found in several of these. The present memoir is a continuation of the same inquiries, conducted by a series of judicious experiments. We shall collect the general results, for we cannot follow them minutely.

M. Margueron found, by his trials, that the oils of thyme, rosemary, lavender, sage, and lemons, experience no alteration even by a continued mixture with solutions of acetite of lead and of alum; that the oils of the vulnerary plants, with a solution of calcareous sea salt, lose their yellow colour and become whiter; that a solution of super-oxygenated muriat of potash, produces no change on the oils of thyme, lavender, peppermint, lemons, and cloves; that lime water destroys, in part, the colour of the oil of rosemary; that the nitrat of mercury is decomposed in the oil of rosemary, whose colour it greatly heightens; that corrosive sublimate, and its solution in distilled water, is partly decomposed and changed to calomel in the oils

of lemons, chervil, hyssop, lavender, rosemary, and peppermint, whose colour and consistence are augmented at the same time; that calomel and cinnabar do not affect, and are not affected by, the oils of lavender and rosemary, though turbith mineral is partly decomposed in the latter; that red precipitate is in part converted into a grey oxide in oil of lavender, without producing any change in the oil; that the caustic muriat of antimony is decomposed in oil of rosemary, which is coloured and thickened by it, while a part of the muriat loses its acid, and is apparently changed into the silver flowers of antimony; that an oleo-saccharum is a more or less perfect combination according to the oil employed; and that volatile oils, agitated in distilled water, produce no heat except when previously combined with spirit of wine.

'Analysis of Ambergrease. By M. Bouillon le Grange.'—The ambergrease is known to be a concretion (probably a morbid one) in the intestines of the physeter macrocephalus; the whale, which produces the fatty wax or spermaceti. A good history of this substance is added; and, as they will not long detain us, we may copy its sensible characters, as the distinction of the genuine drug may be, to some of our readers, an object of importance.

'It is of an ashey, grey colour, streaked internally with some yellow lines, of a sweet pleasant smell, softening under the fingers. When reduced to a fine powder, it acquires a deeper colour; bruised in a glass mortar, it agglutinates and hangs to the pestle. The taste is faint and almost insipid, resembling wax when bitten: its specific gravity about 846.'

On a chemical examination, it is found to be combustible and wholly volatile: distilled alone, it gives out a fluid slightly acid, an oil partly soluble in alcohol, with an empyreumatic smell; by sublimation, it exhales benzoic acid. Water has no action on it, but the nitric acid separates a resinous substance, mixed with fatty wax (adipo-cire, or sperma-ceti). Concentrated, sulphuric, nitric, and oxygenated muriatic acids, reduce it to a coal, without dissolving it. With alkalis, it forms a soapy compound; but in fixed and volatile oils, ether and alcohol, it is completely dissolved: its constituent parts, separated by alcohol, appear to be in 3.820 grammes, 2.016 of fatty wax, 1.167 of resin, 0.425 of benzoic acid, and 0.212 of a coaly matter.

'An Examination of a native Carbonate of Magnesia. By M. Guyton.'—Magnesia is found in many fossils; but, in very few is its proportion considerable. Native carbonate of magnesia is still more rare, not only when pure, but even as a predominant principle, or in a considerable proportion. The principal species hitherto known, are the magnesian carbonate of lime from the Tyrol; the hard tremolite described by

Klaproth; and the spuma maris. Even in these, however, the lime is predominant. The present fossil, found at Castella Monte, at a little distance from Turin, where it forms a thick and extensive stratum, is considered as a very fine clay. The magnesian earth and carbonic acid, form 0.72 of the whole; but, if we estimate from the proportion of carbonic acid, united with the earth on the artificial magnesia, some part of the latter is in a separate state. The fossil contains also 0.14 of flint, and 0.12 of water. M. Brochant has, indeed, described a purer species, without any addition; but it seems to have been an accidental combination, as it forms no extensive stratum.

'Observations on several Pharmaceutical Preparations. By M. Steinacher, Apothecary at Paris. The Abstract by M. Parmentier.'—The first subject recalls some of the ideas of former ages, as it relates to a preparation now almost unknown; we mean the unguentum nutritum, so called by Lemery, we believe its inventor, who gave it this appellation since the ingredients are thus *nourished* together till they acquire a *body*, which neither had separately. In this case, the acetite of lead unites with the oil, and it may be made to become also an intermede between oil and water. In some old Pharmacopeias, water is added; and, in opposition to the idea of the inventor, it has been called unguentum nutritum *sine* corpore; meaning, without the intermedium of mucilage. The chemical principle on which this union depends, is not, we suspect, known. M. Steinacher supposes, that it is owing to the introduction of the carbonic acid which changes the litharge into a white carbonate and thickens the oil, an effect, which M. Pelletier has shown that it has on soap. There appears, however, to be no source of this acid in a sufficient proportion for the purpose, since no decomposition takes place. It is supposed to be essential to add the oil and the acid to the litharge by degrees, sometimes joining a portion of the one, and sometimes of the other. Lemery's proportions are, eight ounces of the sharpest vinegar, and a pint and a half of olive oil, to half a pound of finely powdered litharge. In the Codex (the Dispensatory of Paris, containing the form which our author seems to prefer), the proportions are not very different. One pound and two ounces of oil of roses, and half a pint of vinegar are added to six ounces of litharge. Lemery has, however, told us, that equal parts of vinegar of lead and oil of roses, will make a good nutritum, which he calls butter of lead. A distinguished surgeon of our own country prepares it by adding half an ounce of oil, and as much cream, to an ounce of Goulard's solution; adding, if wanted of a greater consistence, a little spermaceti ointment. This is a very elegant and efficacious formula, and superior to that of the Codex; for it is not only mixed more readily, but it is not so easily decomposed. Our author thinks the labour may

be shortened, by employing the thickened oil of olives, according to the advice of Baumé. At about 15° or 16° (about 68° of Fahrenheit), when all fermentation commences, a portion of carbonic acid is separated, and about 0.09 of the oxide becomes of a yellow colour: the pure white is only preserved by a temperature of about 10° (55° F.). It has been proposed to add hog's lard, in order to accelerate the preparation; but this lessens its bulk and lightness. In Germany there are many different forms of the nutritum: one of these is composed of vinegar of litharge, and half the weight of oil of roses, which forms an ointment of the whiteness of wax, and the consistence of a liniment. Another form is, vinegar of litharge, with one half more of olive oil, which gives a whitish ointment of a moderate consistence. It is made also with an ounce of oil of olives, as much vinegar of litharge, and half an ounce of wax, which forms an ointment of a waxy consistence. These, however, the author tells us, are only mixtures loosely connected, while the combination of the French Dispensatory is of a more intimate nature, and a true chemical union. Of this opinion, however, he offers no proof.

The next subject is on 'The Crystallisation of the Phosphoric Acid.'—It is well known that this acid resembles, in appearance, a thick oil. Our author, however, found that crystallisation really took place after the acid had remained at rest about two years. The crystals appeared to be prismatic in brilliant laminæ, about a line in breadth, and an inch in length; but as they were embedded in a viscid fluid, he could not examine them so closely as to describe them with geometrical precision.

The next article is on 'The purity of Phosphorus.'—Proust has informed us, that, in the most careful distillation of phosphorus, some carbon is united with it; and this carbon is discovered by burning the phosphorus on a silver dish, which leaves a red mark that becomes luminous when heated in the dark, and is, in reality, the carbon with a portion of phosphoric acid. *Warm* oxygenated muriatic acid destroys a part of this carbon; but, when cold, changes the phosphorus to a white oxide, and becomes itself simple muriatic acid. It is impossible, therefore, wholly to deprive the phosphorus of its carbon; though Fourcroy has asserted that no direct combination between phosphorus and carbon is yet known, it is probable such may exist.

Another article is on 'The white Oxide of Phosphorus,' which sublimes on slightly heating the phosphorus, and is an oxide with the smallest proportion of oxygen it will admit. It is of a fleecy texture, has some cohesion, and occupies four times the bulk of the phosphorus employed in the experiment.

It does not redden the paper tinged with tournesol, but it flames, when in contact with combustible bodies, and attracts humidity from the air; thus becoming phosphorous acid. It differs greatly from the white oxide of phosphorus, prepared by the continued action of water, or oxygenated muriatic acid, without heat. The latter is powdery and friable, scarcely inflammable, and attracts no moisture from the air. This is phosphorus at its maximum of oxygenation. The regular crystallisation of oil of roses was observed in the distilled water of roses; the surface of which, after standing twenty-four hours, appeared as if sprinkled with small exaedra, resembling the crystals of snow.

'Extract of a Letter from Toulon to General Vavasseur, Inspector of the Marine Artillery.'—This letter relates to the singular state in which some of the artillery, sunk when the French ships were burnt at Toulon, have been lately found. The action of the sea-water had been partial and irregular, probably from the metal not having been homogeneous, or from some parts of the cannon having been heated to a greater degree than the rest.

The first article of the 140th number is the 'Abstract of a Memoir, by M. Leblond, on the Culture of the Arnotto Tree, the Bixa Orellana, and Manufacture of Arnotto.'—This abstract we cannot abridge, and it would be interesting to very few.

'Note on the new Process of M. Carbonel, to obtain a Stone Colour that dries easily, and resists the Inclemency of the Air.'—This relates to the use of lime with milk or albumen, as a pigment, without a single word of its rapid destruction of the brushes. The singularity of this short article is, that the process was described in a work of Bonanni, published at Rome in 1716, entitled, 'A Treatise on Varnish commonly styled Chinese.' The vehicle there directed is the blood of a pig; which, the author says, in China, resembles that of a calf in Italy.

'A new Process for the Preparation of the Muriats of Barytes and Strontian. By M. Bouillon la Grange.'—The muriat of barytes, to be wholly deprived of the calcareous muriat, must undergo a second crystallisation; and, after having decanted the fluid that swims on the crystals, these must be washed with a little distilled water. This relates to the new process of separating the earth from the sulphat of barytes, by means of calcareous muriat. The German method of administering this salt, is, to dissolve a drachm in two ounces of distilled water, adding half an ounce of syrup of oranges. From forty to fifty drops are given to adults, four times a day. This dose, it is said, may be augmented; and it is recommended in scrofula, goitres, diseases of the eyes, and in many cutaneous complaints.

In this country it has been found a dangerous medicine, and often inefficacious from a solution of other salts; sometimes the sal cathart. amarum being sold instead of it.

The improved process for preparing the muriat of strontian consists in first separating from the sulphat of strontian the oxide of iron and the earthy matters by muriatic acid, and then employing the calcareous muriat. The muriat of strontian is much more soluble in hot than in cold water. It consequently crystallises by cold, while the muriat of barytes is nearly as soluble in one as in the other. An ounce of distilled water at the heat of 70 degrees, dissolves nine drachms and fifty grains of the muriat of strontian, and about three drachms thirty-five grains of the other salt. The sulphurated hydrogenous gas that arises from the decomposition of sulphat of barytes, is peculiarly deleterious; but it has not been particularly examined.

'A Hint respecting the Decomposition of the acidulous Tartrite of Potash, by means of Lime. By M. Vauquelin.'—It is of importance to attend to the slightest circumstance in great operations. In the preparation of the tartarous acid when lime was employed, in Scheele's process, to procure the alkali in a pure state, on evaporating the fluid for the last purpose, a thick and transparent jelly was discovered. It appeared, on examination, that the pure alkali could retain a proportion of the tartrite of lime. The only method of recovering the alkali must, of course, be incineration and lixiviation.

Mr. Chenevix's 'Observations on the Palladium,' from the Philosophical Transactions of this country, we shall, as usual, omit; and we must again observe, for the information of such of our readers as may not have perused our former volumes, that we generally omit the account of books that may have occurred in our successive Appendices, or that are translated from our language. We consequently proceed to the following article.

'On the Quantity of Oxygen which the Charcoal takes up, when the Diamond in combustion forms pure Carbonic Acid,' from the German of M. Richter.—These calculations, though curious, are not generally interesting, and they depend also on the author's system of stœchiometry; by means of which the respective proportions of different constituent parts, the degrees of saturation, and the relations of neutrality, become problems capable of being reduced to calculation: a system which we find it impossible, within the limits of an article like the present, to explain. We shall select the conclusion.

'It is remarkable in this observation, that the differences of the strongest specific oxygenations of these oxidable substances (charcoal, diamond, and the muriatic acid), are always given by a constant number, taken in a series of triangular numbers;

a circumstance which, as well as the *quantitative* proportion, the predominant principle in chemistry, will, at a future period, lead to important discoveries, if we can remove the veil from nature, by means of this science.'

'Portable Barometers. By M. Maigné, Artist, rue Aumaire, Paris.'—We cannot explain this ingenious contrivance without the plate.

'Note on a particular Chemical Phenomenon. By M. Payssé.'—We scarcely think it of importance to notice this phenomenon, as it admits of little application. It occurred from accidentally adding a solution of nitrated mercury to some sweet spirit of nitre, when a portion of calomel was precipitated.

The first article in the 141st number is on 'Cantharides and Blisters. By M. Parmentier.'—The author gives a short history of the insect, and observes, as others have done, that the small worm, which, after some time, destroys the form of the fly, does not injure its qualities. M. Thouvenel has analysed the cantharides, and found them to contain three-eighths of an extractive matter, of a reddish-yellow, very bitter, affording an acid by distillation; somewhat more than one-tenth of a concrete waxy oil, of a green colour, a sharp taste, and smelling like the cantharides, which, on distillation, gives out a very sharp acid and a viscid oil; about one-fifth of a yellow concrete oil, analogous to the preceding, apparently the source of the animal's colour; with about half the weight of a solid parenchyma, which forms the basis of their bodies. The active virtues of the cantharides, according to Thouvenel, reside in the green waxy matter; and their particular powers are, in his opinion, owing to an acid principle.

These observations lead M. Parmentier to consider blisters in a pharmaceutical and a medical view. He rather recommends adding the flies to the surface of a common plaister; and speaks, with approbation, of a pomatum in which the entire insects are macerated, with the assistance of a gentle heat, for twenty-four hours, and then separated by straining. In the preparation of the blistering ointment, our author prefers the formula of Boerhaave, who, having infused the cantharides, employs the substance remaining on the strainer, to that of our College, who prefer the fluid strained off: in this, however, he is mistaken. It is, in his opinion, an object of importance to ascertain, whether an infusion of cantharides in oil would not be preferable to the spirituous and ethereal solutions of these flies, when used as external stimuli.

A suggestion of some importance in this memoir must not be overlooked. Since the grosser powder, and that first obtained, is most effectual, whether some part of the effects may

not be derived from the mechanical stimulus of the scales? We know that this is very powerful in some insects, and we have a striking instance of it in the spiculæ of the cowhage. We can also agree with our author, in recommending a more careful examination of this important remedy, and an inquiry into the different, and perhaps distinct, powers of its component parts, so that we may obtain some of its good effects, without the inconveniences often attached to them, and perhaps some effects peculiarly adapted to different diseases.

'A Memoir on the Presence of a new Phosphoric Earthy Salt in the Bones of Animals, and on the Analysis of these Organs in general. By MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.'—M. Fourcroy's labours on urinary calculi are well known; but, however valuable in themselves, they are become more so by having contributed to excite a more minute inquiry. The phosphats that exist in the human urine, are not found in those of the mammalia; whose hairs, nails, horns, and skin, are the depôts adapted by nature for these earthy salts. Besides the uric acid, urinary calculi contain phosphats of lime and magnesia, not found in the urinary calculi of other animals; who are, in turn, subject to phosphoric, earthy concretions in the intestines, unknown in the human subject. These authors' further inquiries have been diligently pursued, but are not yet complete, because circumstances have induced them to publish sooner than they intended. They have, however, discovered in the bones of animals a phosphat of magnesia, which is not found, at least in any appreciable quantity, in the human subject. The authors first describe the process which they have followed, and then add the chief differences discovered between the bones of man and other animals. For a description of the process, we must refer to the work.

In the bones of oxen, cartilaginous fish, and chickens, our authors found about $\frac{1}{10}$th of phosphat of magnesia; in those of sheep and horses about $\frac{1}{12}$. The complete analysis of the bones of the ox follows. In 100 parts of the bone, are found 51 of solid jelly; 37.7 of phosphat of lime; 10 of carbonate of lime; and 1.3 of carbonate of magnesia. M. Fourcroy next examines from whence this new salt is derived. As phosphat of lime is found in meal, so the phosphat of magnesia is found in wheat, barley, oats, and vetches; and has since been discovered in a great variety of the legumina. The cerealia afford about 0.015 of this salt, near twice the proportion of phosphat of lime; yet the latter is in a much larger proportion in the bones of animals; which, our author thinks, may account for the frequent occurrences of intestinal concretions in the horse, which consist of an ammoniaco-magnesian phosphat.

The second problem relates to the cause of this salt being exclusively found in the bones of animals. It is owing to its being

carried off in the human urine, for that of animals has not the slightest vestige of it. The third subject of inquiry is the relation between the phosphat of magnesia in the bones, and the urinary or intestinal concretions of animals. This is sufficiently clear from the former explanations.

'Experiments on the Yoak (of Wool), followed by some Reflexions on the Washing and Bleaching of Wools. By M. Vauquelin.'—What we have styled the *yoak* from vulgar pronunciation, without answering for the correctness of the orthography, is the greasy matter in the wool when taken from the sheep. The largest proportion of this substance (in French '*suint*') is an alkaline soap, with a small quantity of carbonate of potash, a larger proportion of *acetite* of potash, with an 'atom' of muriat of potash. It contains also some lime; but its state of combination our author is unacquainted with; and some animal matter, to which its peculiar smell is owing.

M. Vauquelin seems little acquainted with the business of washing wool, and speaks of it very vaguely. The soap employed, he properly remarks, should be in a small proportion; but of the effects, as well as theory, of the use of putrid urine he seems ignorant. He is not aware of its saponaceous detersive quality in many branches of the fuller's trade; and there is certainly some uncombined potash in the native wool. The bleaching of wool he speaks of, also, with very little knowledge. It requires no bleaching. Repeated exposure in running river water and open air brings it to a perfect whiteness. Sulphuric acid destroys its texture, and at last bleaches it incompletely.

'The Prover: or an Instrument within the Reach of every One, to ascertain the Counterfeit Louis-d'Or.'—This is only a convenient form of an hydrostatic balance, to which M. Guyton has added some observations respecting the deterioration of gold by platina. He tells us that gold cannot be adulterated with platina, without detecting the fraud by its colour. Dr. Lewis told us so thirty years ago.

'Memoir on the Motion communicated to certain Fluids by the Contact of other Fluids. By J. Draparnaud, Professor of Natural History at Montpelier.'—This relates to the minute motions of fluids by adding other fluids, as by alcohol or oil added to water. These are amusing trifles, which can scarcely be dignified with the title of philosophy.

'Account of a Journey to the Department of Orne, to establish the Reality of a Meteor observed at Aigle, 6th Floreal, An 11. By M. Biot.'—We have already noticed this narrative, and have now only to repeat, that the stone which fell resembled, in its very peculiar composition, every other atmospherical visitant that philosophers have had occasion to examine.

ART. III.—*Œuvres de Pierre Camper, &c.* Paris.

*The Works of Peter Camper, which relate to Natural History, Physiology, and Comparative Anatomy.* 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* *With a Folio Volume of Plates.* Imported by De Boffe.

WE have often attended this respectable veteran in his excursions through the different branches of science mentioned in the title, and have often borne a willing testimony to his merits in all his attempts. Our present object, then, is to notice the different tracts which fill these volumes, and examine more minutely the modest biographical sketch of this able anatomist, prefixed to the collection by his son. It is not that Camper has been neglected by the learned societies of which he has been a member; and eulogies of him have been read by Viq. d'Azyr, Louis, and Condorcet. These, however, from the causes that have delayed the publication of the volumes with which they were connected, have not yet appeared, though the first and last have been procured, and are added to the Life of Camper by his son.

'Perhaps,' observes the biographer, 'it may be objected to me, that the ties of blood should have forbidden my engaging in this task; but it will be perceived, that I am above every suspicion of partiality, by confining myself to the simple office of biographer of my father, without offering any opinion on the merits of his works. It would have been, doubtless, easy to have enlarged on his social and domestic virtues: a long intimacy, an uninterrupted epistolary correspondence, and other particular circumstances, have shown me, in a peculiarly advantageous manner, the excellent qualities of his heart. But I prefer silence; persuaded, that the conviction of an honest heart is a more valuable meed than the plaudits of the multitude.'

Peter Camper was born in Leyden the 11th of May, 1722. His father had been a minister of the Gospel at Batavia; and on his return thence, where he had married, became intimately connected with the philosophers and physicians who rendered, at that time, the university of Leyden peculiarly famous. The father of Camper was also fond of the fine arts; which led his son to cultivate, very early, design; and he drew at an early age, both in pencil and oil colours. While in England, he copied several of Smellie's plates of midwifery, as is mentioned in that work; and his journals of his different travels are illustrated by sketches of the more remarkable views. He engraved also *ennoir*. A painting of himself as large as life,

executed at the age of twenty-one, is still preserved in his family.

The education of Camper, at Leyden, was conducted most advantageously. Muschenbroeck and Gravesand instructed him in philosophy; the chevalier Moor and his son, in the art of design; while the war of 1746 fixed his attention on military architecture. It is thus that the *exact* sciences, those *handles of philosophy*, and the knowledge of the fine arts, became the principal instruments of his future fame; and, in the mean time, the most powerful instruments in assisting his discoveries.

Camper preferred the study of medicine; but the age and infirmities of Boerhaave allowed him, in a very limited degree, the advantages of his instruction. These were supplied by Albinus, Gaubius, Van Royen, and Trisen, who were his chief assistants. At the age of twenty-four he obtained the degree of doctor in philosophy, and then published two dissertations: the first on the sense of sight, and the second on some parts of the eye; which are highly commended by Baldinger, in his Biography of living Physicians.

The connection of Camper with many learned foreigners, inspired a desire of travelling; but the infirmities of his father forbad him. When, however, he had the misfortune to lose his parent, he set out for London, and arrived there about his twenty-sixth year. This was a rich soil for fostering the genius of the young student. Mead, Hunter, Smellie, Mitchel, Parsons, Pringle, and many other celebrated physicians, were then alive. Sloane, Baker, Catesby, and Colinson, could give him the best information in natural history and philosophy. He visited also Watson and Knight, Graham and Short, and, at Oxford, Kennicot, Halley, and Smith; many of them veterans, but still possessing all the powers of their vast minds. From hence he went to Paris and Geneva. Similar characters were not then waiting for him at either place; but he saw Sanchez, Verdun, and Buffon. He returned through Switzerland, Strasbourg, Manheim, and Bonn; visiting, in his journey, every philosopher of merit and distinction.

While at Geneva, he was appointed professor of philosophy, medicine, and surgery, at Franeker; but was prevented from taking possession of his office by a severe illness, till the year 1750, when he delivered an oration, De Mundo Optimo; and, about the same period, was elected member of the Royal Society of London. He again returned to this metropolis in 1752, and extended his acquaintance particularly among the mechanical philosophers, as Smeaton, Watson, Hawkins, &c. Sharp instructed him on the diseases of the eye; and Archer, an able surgeon, taught him all that was then known respecting inoculation.

In 1755 the extent of Camper's fame induced the directors of the *Athenæum illustre* of Amsterdam, to elect him professor of anatomy and surgery of that institution; to which, three years afterwards, was joined the professorship of medicine. On taking the former chair, the subject of his oration was the Utility of Anatomy in every Branch of Science; and he soon afterwards delivered a Discourse on what is certain in Medicine. In 1758 he married the widow of a burgomaster of Harlingen.

Notwithstanding the labours of his professorship, he published in 1759 the first volume of his Anatomico-pathological Demonstrations; and soon afterwards a Memoir presented to the Society of Sciences at Haarlem, in Dutch, on the Causes of Hernia in new-born Infants.

The fame and honours which attended him in the capital could not, however, wholly check his desire for literary retirement; and he returned to Friesland, retaining only the title of honorary professor of the *Athenæum*. In his retirement he published the second volume of his Demonstrations; the continuation of his work on Hernias; an Anatomical Description of the Organ of Hearing in Fish, which he first discovered in 1761; and a Memoir on the physical Education of Infants. The last two were in Dutch; and for the last he obtained the silver medal, the second prize offered by the Society of Sciences at Haarlem.

Though he flew to retirement from the bustle of the capital, he did not refuse an office not inconsistent with it, and he accepted the offer of the professorship of medicine, surgery, anatomy, and botany, at Groningen, in the vicinity of his country-house. His inaugural oration was on the admirable Analogy between Plants and Animals; followed by another on Lameness, and its natural Causes. Having some time afterwards quitted the rectorship of the academy, he delivered a Discourse de Pulchro Physico, which he afterwards expanded to a Memoir read, in 1782, to the Academy of Design at Amsterdam. A Memoir on the Callus of fractured Bones, presented to the Society at Edinburgh, occasioned his being elected one of that body.

The interest which Camper took in the improvement of agriculture induced him to establish an agricultural society at Groningen, of which he was appointed secretary. In 1767 he presented his Memoir on the Organ of Hearing in Fish, to the Royal Academy at Paris, which was printed in 1774, in the seventh volume of the Mathematical and Philosophical Memoirs presented to the Academy. In the year following he was chosen a member of the Royal Academy of Surgery at Paris, and an honorary member of the Academy of Design at Amsterdam.

The epidemic, which raged among the cattle in 1768, induced Camper, in union with Van Doeveren, to propose a

society for their inoculation; which, from the prejudices of the people, at first failed, but was afterwards more successful. He presented, however, to the States-General a short report of his trials, and gave a course of lectures, at Groningen, on epizootics, which were printed in 1770.

Inoculation for the small-pox shared also his attention, and he published Observations upon it, founded on Experience. He endeavoured to excite a taste for painting in Groningen; and attempted, but without success, to establish a school of design in that city. In the same year, 1772, he was elected corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences, and a member of the societies of Rotterdam and Vlissingen.

His attention to natural history was still unimpaired: he continued his dissections, and communicated his discoveries in his lectures. He dissected an ourang-outang, a rein-deer, a porpoise, the head of a whale, and of a double-horned rhinoceros. Comparative anatomy was a favourite study of Camper, and he traced the comparison not only between some men and monkeys, but between men in different countries, and at different ages, illustrated by the paintings of the best masters. His method of ascertaining the discriminating traits was communicated in a Memoir to the Academy of Design at Amsterdam, in a public discourse on this interesting subject. It was afterwards enlarged, and has been the subject of our remarks.

In 1771 Camper discovered, from the dissection of birds, that air entered the cavities of the wing and thigh bones of many birds, and every part of the skeleton of birds of prey. Mr. J. Hunter claimed, it is said, this discovery; but it was only published by him in 1774, three years after it was announced at Groningen by Camper. A Memoir on this subject he sent to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, with an Anatomical Description of the Peccari, the Ant-eater of the Cape, and a Memoir on the Organs of Hearing in the Blowing-fish. About the same time he inserted, in a periodical paper, the Rhapsodist, a Memoir on the Origin of the Colour of Negroes, which Camper had already read at a public session at Groningen. In 1773, the last year of his residence in Groningen, he read a course of lectures on forensic medicine, which was honoured with a very general attendance.

In this laborious employment ten years passed away, and he was, at last, determined to resign his professorship, and to retire to Franeker, as he resolved to superintend the education of his son. He continued, however, his publications, and communications to learned societies. From the academy at Toulouse he received the prize medal for 'determining the advantages, and best method, of inoculating from the small-pox;' from that of Lyons the prize for the 'history and treatment of chronic diseases of the lungs.' The first of these memoirs was published in 1774, and to it was subjoined a Letter on the Ad-

vantages of the Section of the Symphysis in laborious Labours; to which were annexed Critical Observations on Van Swieten's Commentary on the Small-pox. He afterwards sent to the academy at Lyons a Dissertation on the Construction of Trusses, and Observations on laborious Labours, by the Locking of the Head, and on the Use of the Lever of Roonhuysen in such Cases. The Batavian Society received from Camper a Memoir on the Structure of the larger Bones of Birds, and on the Manner in which Air is introduced into them; with another on the Croaking of male Frogs; and a third on the Manner of making Bandages.

In 1774 he published, at Leeuwarden, a Memoir on the Signs of Life and Death in new-born Children; 2dly, Ideas on Infanticide, with a Proposal for a foundling Hospital; 3dly, On the Causes of Infanticide and Suicide, with two Essays on the Intromission of Air into the Lungs of a new-born Infant.

In the autumn of 1774 Camper again mounted the tribune of the Academy of Design, and pronounced a very interesting and curious Discouse on the Method of discovering the Passions by a Knowledge of the Nerves; and in the autumn of the same year he dissected a young elephant, which died in the menagerie of the prince of Orange. The description was published in Dutch, and is printed in the second volume of this collection. In 1775 Camper claimed, in a periodical journal in Holland, the discovery of the transmission of air into the bones of birds, before the time when Mr. Hunter pretended to make the same discovery, and contended that he had followed this intromission into the cranium and mandibles, which Hunter admits that he was not able to accomplish even in 1774.

Camper obtained two medals of gold from the Academy of Surgery, the first in 1774, for Explaining the Inconveniences arising from the Abuse of Ointments and Plaisters, and the Reform which common Practice admits in the Treatment of Ulcers; and the second in 1776, On the Effects of the Air on surgical Diseases, and the Means of rendering it salutary.

In 1776 Camper lost his wife; and, to dissipate his melancholy, made a tour through Flanders, mixing his inquiries into natural history with an examination of the different collections, suggested by his ardent fondness for painting, and the varied gratification which it would, of course, receive from the *chef-d'œuvres* of Rubens, Van Dyck, &c. After about two months he returned to Franeker, and his attention was immediately engaged by the destruction of the dikes; and in the question On the Means of preserving them from a similar Accident, he espoused the opinion of Robles, against that of count de Wassenaar. His letter to the count was published in 1777, and the year following some other tracts appeared on the same subject.

He afterwards communicated, to a periodical collection, a letter on Lithotomy at two Operations; and a Memoir on the two-horned Rhinoceros, which Pallas inserted in the Petersburgh Transactions.

The pleasure Camper enjoyed in his first journey to Paris made him anxious to repeat it: he consequently went there the following summer, and read to the Academy of Sciences a Dissertation on the characteristic Traits of the Countenances of different Races, and on the Manner of drawing them with Precision, as well as those of different Ages, and on the ancient Beauty *(bel antique)*; with a Memoir on the best and least expensive Method of constructing Trusses; and the Result of some Experiments on the Method of tempering Steel for this Purpose. At the Royal Academy of Surgery he read a Memoir on the Discovery of Glands in the Interior of the Sternum, and on the Symptoms of incurable Cancers. At the Royal Society of Medicine he read a Memoir on the Nature of Epizootics, and on the Advantages of Inoculation. He here also enjoyed the unalloyed pleasure of literary and scientific conversation, with the gratification of his peculiar taste for drawing and paintings.

On his return, his attachment to comparative anatomy became again the predominant passion: he began to perceive an astonishing resemblance between birds and men, and soon caught the scale of proportion which connected all created beings. This connection was perceived in every age, from Aristotle to Buffon, but only in general. Camper alone could, from his knowledge of comparative anatomy and drawing, give it the proper form. It was the subject of a Discourse delivered to the Academy of Design at Amsterdam, and was further improved in his Lectures delivered in 1778.

The sixth prize was decreed to him in 1778, by the Societies of the Friends of Natural History and Philosophy at Berlin, for a memoir on the following subject—'What is the principal Cause of Epizootics? Does it consist of a single Germ, which, by a given Modification, becomes one Disease rather than another? Does this primitive Germ, or this first Cause of Epizootics, arise from the Air, or is it found in the Bodies of Animals? Can it be proved, by Observation, that Worms or Insects form this Germ, or set it in Motion?' At the same period this society admitted him amongst its members. The Royal Academy of Toulouse, and the Society of Agriculture at Amsterdam, equally received him as an associate. About this time Camper published the Treatises of Hippocrates, Celsus, and Paulus Egineta, on Ulcers of the Urethra and the Prolapsus Ani, elucidated by Observation.—2dly, A short Description of the Dissection of several Ourang-outangs.—3dly, A Collection of Tracts on the Dikes of Vyf-Deelen, in Frizeland.

In 1779 he sent to the Royal Society of London his Memoir on the Vocal Organs of the Ourang-outang, showing these animals to be incapable of modulated sounds, and of course proving their vast distance from the human race. At the same time appeared, at Amsterdam, his Memoirs on Ourang-outangs and different Species of Apes, on the double-horned Rhinoceros, and the Rein-deer.

Camper, in 1779, received the seventh prize, a gold medal, on this subject—'To determine what is a Specific, and what Qualities a Medicine of this Kind ought to have; to point out those already known from Experience; to explain their Manner of acting, elucidate their Use, and to point out the Diseases against which Specifics are still wanting.' He inserted at the same time, in a Dutch journal, a Memoir on the Nature of Cancer, and the infallible Signs of an incurable Cancer in the Breast.

He then visited the north of Germany and Berlin, where the great Frederick received him with peculiar distinction; and, indeed, his reception from persons of every rank was warm and flattering. After his return in 1781, his Essay on the best Form of Shoes; the Memoir on Sleep and Watching, and their Use in surgical Diseases; his Letter on the Lameness of Infants, with the republication of some other essays of less importance in a more expanded form, chiefly engaged his attention. The chief of the new subjects was an Account of the Fossil Remains found in St. Peter's Mountain at Maestricht; a Description of the Lacertina Siren of Linnæus; Critical Observations on the Linnæan Classification of Fish; and a Memoir on the fossil Remains of the Animal incognitum.

In 1785 he again visited England; and died of a pleurisy in 1789, at the age of 67. Of his character we cannot now speak: this, and the contents of the present volume, will be the subject of another article.

*(To be continued.)*

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ART. XII.—*Traité d'Anatomie et de Physiologie Végétales.* Paris.

*Treatise on Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology, serving as an Introduction to the Study of Botany. By C. F. Brisseau Mirbell, Assistant Naturalist to the National Museum of Natural History, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

WE have examined this introductory manual with great satisfaction: it is clear and correct, as well as sufficiently full; and will supply in a great measure the deficiency of the more extensive works of Du Hamel and Senebier. The first volume contains the greater part of the anatomy and physiology of vegetation; subjects which conclude at page 100 of the second volume. A methodic vocabulary follows; and we next find an

explanation of the systems of Tournefort, Linnæus, and Jussieu. A third volume is promised, which will contain a history of the science, and some criticisms on these different systems. We do not perceive that this is yet published.

The introduction consists of two preliminary discourses. The first is entitled General Considerations on Beings (êtres), with a short View of the Works on Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology: the second comprises a concise account of the external parts which compose a vegetable. We shall add a short extract from the former.

'Nature seems to have made of every being one whole, composed of different parts; but instead of uniting them in this manner, we separate, to examine them independently of each other; and thus obtain more certain results by concentrating our attention on fewer objects. This is the end of our divisions and subdivisions. We thus separate a certain number of beings from the rest, and can more easily perceive their relations, because they are less multiplied. These groups must not, however, be formed without order and without laws. If all beings be united by reciprocal relations, it is evident that these connexions are not equally forcible through the whole. To show this by a striking example, it will be sufficient to remark, that the relations between two quadrupeds are more numerous than those which unite quadrupeds and birds; and that all animals are more nearly related to each other than to minerals. It is of importance to observe these shades, not only in the outlines, where they are easily seen, but in the minuter branches, where they sometimes escape the most penetrating observation.'

From an elementary work we cannot make long or copious extracts. It is sufficient to select a few passages where novelty or interest has lent a charm. Among these the following strikes us: yet we suspect that it is not well founded. As vegetables live, as the resistance of cold is seemingly inseparable from life, we cannot wholly reduce it to a chemical property, even though we hesitate, as we formerly did when the experiments were before us, respecting the conclusion to be drawn from them. We allude to those trials in which the thermometer, immersed in the body of a tree, exhibited a degree of heat superior to that of the ambient air.

'It is not useless to add, that plants owe to the resins and oils their property of resisting cold because these substances are bad conductors of heat, probably from the carbon that they contain.'

With respect to the influence of light as the source of the green colour of vegetables, our author remarks, that, when the chemistry of vegetables is better known, it will be perhaps found that the access of light is not indispensably necessary for its production, as we are tempted, he adds, to believe from the experiments of Humboldt. The note we shall subjoin, and with more pleasure, since, in the moment of writing, we find

that Humboldt has survived all his dangers, and is on his return to Europe.

'This naturalist has seen a very green lichen of a remarkable size, in subterraneous cavities where the light never penetrated. He has raised in these same cavities crocuses, whose flowers were perfectly well coloured. He has placed in these spots, the geranium odoratissimum Lin., and the mosses styled by Hedwig Barbula ruralis and Neckera viticulosa: they have continued to vegetate, and their green colour has remained. These subterraneous cavities were filled with hydrogen to such a degree, that the gas extinguished the flame of a candle, and severely affected the lungs. These experiments, joined to many others, induced Humboldt to think, that hydrogen, without light, and with a small proportion of oxygen, is sufficient for vegetation.'

The facts recorded by Professor Robison, lately mentioned, where the tansy had not only lost its green colour but even the peculiar shape of its leaves, do not, if we recollect rightly, oppose this opinion; as, in the shaft where this vegetable was traced, hydrogen did not abound.

The supposed importance of the medulla has arisen, we suspect, from its analogy to the spinal marrow of animals. In vegetables it is less considerable; and our author, in the following opinion, coincides with the best vegetable physiologists of the present period.

'It seems to me, that the medulla acts only in the first moments of vegetation: then, swollen by the fluids which penetrate it, and distending in every direction, it presses against the soft parts incapable of making any resistance. We thus, at first, see the medullary canal enlarging, and its cellules passing into the meshes of the nascent bark to form the medullary radii. But the bark soon is converted into wood, its vessels are corroded, its meshes elongated, and the medullary canal becomes daily less; the interior bark is developed, and the medulla totally disappears.'

Some of the remarks on the motions of plants are curious, and to us new. Desfontaines carried a sensitive plant (mimosa pudica) in a carriage. The motion at first made its leaves drop; but it soon became accustomed to it, and they again expanded. The plant seemed at first apprehensive, but soon recovered from its terrors. M. Decandolle cheated a sensitive plant, by illuminating it by means of lamps during the night. He thus made it sleep by day and awake at night. Yet this plant, in the dark, will expand and close its leaves at the usual hours; and Decandolle could not deceive the mimosa leucocephala, the oxalis incarnata, or striata. In fact, the recurrence of sleep on the decline of the sun in animals, has led physiologists to think these two events more nearly connected than they perhaps in reality are.

'For my part,' adds our author, 'I am disposed to think their sleep, like that of animals, depends on an internal cause; and that the apparent agents are only accidental or secondary causes. Why should we deny them a vital power, which determines certain external motions? To consider them as simple machines, is to shut our eyes and refuse to ponder their nutrition, expansion, fecundation, &c., phænomena which suppose, in organised beings, a power essentially different from a mechanical one. If we cannot deny this vital force, is it not natural to conclude that it may sometimes show itself by external motions to a certain point, independent of external objects. If this opinion be admitted, we may presume that these external objects may act on the organisation, and become the occasional causes of effects, whose more immediate cause resides in the being itself. So the sleep of animals is not the necessary effect of the privation of light; but night favours repose, and all sensible animated beings then yield to it. The sleep of plants, in the same way, if not wholly owing to the freshness and the coolness of the night, takes place when the sun sinks below the horizon; because this is the time, in the diurnal revolution, best adapted to it. I repeat, let not the term sleep draw us into hasty conclusions. The activity of the senses makes repose necessary; but why should plants repose, who have no senses? What is the repose of a vegetable, or what the connexion between our sleep and the position their leaves assume? If the means escape our sight, the end is not less obscure. Between us and plants there is an immense distance, which admits neither of comparison nor analogy.'

Our author next enumerates the various phænomena of the different sensitive plants, and shows very satisfactorily that their motions cannot be owing to mechanical effects. His conclusion is peculiarly judicious.

'We have not yet sufficiently studied the organisation of the joints of leaves, particularly of the more irritable ones; as the mimosa pudica, and hedysarum gyrans. We may perhaps find in the anatomic examination of these parts the solution of the problem; which is, not to discover what is the first cause of vegetable irritability, for this cannot be discovered, but in what organ it resides, and how it acts.'

The chapter on the diseases and the death of plants is less satisfactory than some of the other parts; and is, indeed, a part of the vegetable œconomy that has not yet been sufficiently studied or explained.

The methodic vocabulary is very full and well disposed. It is illustrated by plates. In the preface, the author notices the criticisms of some naturalists who declaim against descriptive definitions, because Buffon did not employ them. In fact, the French naturalist only described; he did not distinguish. In animals and birds, the great outlines were sufficient; and where they were not so, he borrowed from other naturalists. To

know the object is the first step in science; but we cannot be said to know it, unless we can distinguish it from every other. How can these distinctions be conveyed without accurate description? How can we attain accurate description, without a language distinct, precise, and appropriate?

The systems explained, as we have said, are those of Tournefort, Linnæus, and Jussieu. On these we need not now enlarge. Each is excellent; and that of Linnæus perhaps only to be preferred, as it admits of being extended, and indeed has been extended, to the utmost limits of new discoveries. The plates illustrative of the anatomy and physiology of vegetation are few. One large plate offers a microscopic view of some of the smaller parts which illustrate the structure, and two are taken from Dr. Hales. The vocabulary is illustrated by many plates borrowed from common works; and the systems of Tournefort and Linnæus elucidated by the representations of some well-chosen flowers. Several tables are added, particularly the Calendar of Flora, the Clock of Flora, with some similar ones from Adanson.

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ART. V.—*La Navigation, Poeme, &c.*

*Navigation, a Poem in eight Cantos, with historic and geographic Notes. By J. Esmenard. 2 Vols. 8vo.* Paris. 1805.

THE French have produced many good versifiers, but few good poets. They often put sound sense into smooth rhyme; but they seldom attain a picturesque liveliness, or a pathetic warmth of expression. Didactic composition in metre has its value: it is likely to be read by the young; to be gotten by heart at school; to engrave on the memory many a wholesome precept in a neat quotable form; and to prepare that habitual association of the beautiful with the good, in which antiquity placed the radical motive of moral excellence. But didactic composition in metre is, after all, a mechanical art, the mere knack of measuring and folding phrases into Alexandrines and couplets, and is as capable of being performed without fancy or feeling, as by the aid of these emanations of genius. When a mechanical art has been carried on for a length of time in a country, the best method of performance is gradually struck out; the most euphonous verbiage, the most applicable rhymes, the most condensed turns of phrase, the most convenient forms of line, come to be generally known and generally used; as manufacturers of pottery adopt the most admired forms of ewers and teapots from the vases of the new Etruria; or as cabinet-makers derive from antique *basso-relievos* the Roman shapes of chairs which they domesticate in Paris and in London. The effect of this refinement in versification is to give a terseness, a tri-

viality to the dialect of the Muse, incompatible with stimulant effect: forms of composition which, while new, were delightful, cease to be impressive, because they are familiar. Many of our modern English couplet-makers suffer already from this cause: how much of Darwin's poetry fatigues, cloys, disgusts, notwithstanding its frequent beauty of idea, because it is all run in the same patent mould, and belongs to that sing-song sort of verse which we might undertake to deliver by the gross. The French have still more of this verse made by rote than we. The want of variety in their rhymed letter-press is so obvious that it may be thought they might print all their poetry logographically, with stereotype hemistichs. Mr. Esmenard is not in the least an exception to the practice of his countrymen: he executes metre in their manner with remarkable ease and felicity; and as this manner cannot, in a foreign country, be so familiar as to appear hackneyed, we have no doubt of delighting the admirers of French poetry by copious extracts.

The following description of Egypt is adapted for separation from the body of the poem.

'Mere antique des arts et des fables divines,
Toi dont la gloire, assise au milieu des ruines,
Etonne le génie et confond notre orgueil;
Egypte vénérable ou du fond du cercueil
Ta grandeur colossale insulte a nos chimeres;
C'est ton peuple qui sut à ces barques légeres,
Dont rien ne dirigeait le cours audacieux,
Chercher des guides sûrs dans la voûte des cieux.
Quand le fleuve sacré qui féconde tes rives,
T'apportait en tribut ses ondes fugitives,
Et, sur l'émail des prés égarant les poissons,
Du limon de ses flots nourrissait tes moissons;
Les hameaux dispersés sur les hauteurs fertiles
D'un nouvel Océan semblaient former les îles;
Les palmiers réfléchis par le cristal des eaux
Dans les champs inondés nageaient sur les côteaux;
Par les feux du Cancer, Syène poursuivie
Dans les sables brûlans sentait filtrer la vie;
Et des murs de Péluse aux lieux où fut Memphis,
Mille canots flottaient sur la terre d'Isis.
Le foible papyrus de ses rameaux utiles
Formait les flancs étroits de ces barques fragiles,
Qui, des lieux séparés conservant les rapports,
Réunissaient l'Egypte en parcourant ses bords.
Mais lorsque dans les airs la Vierge triomphante
Ramenait vers le Nil son onde décroissante;
Quand les troupeaux bêlans et les épis dorés
S'emparaient à leur tour des champs désaltérés;

Alors d'autres vaisseaux à l'active industrie
Ouvraient des aquilons l'orageuse patrie ;
L'acier retentissant sur la rive des mers
Fendait l'acacia durci par cent hivers,
Et ses rameaux, courbés par un sage artifice,
D'un mobile château composaient l'édifice ;
Bientôt lancé sur l'onde, il portait dans ses flancs
Du Delta moissonné les produits bienfaisans ;
Et quand la nuit couvrait l'Olympe de ses voiles,
Le pilote, attentif à l'éclat des étoiles,
Voguait, les yeux fixés sur un ciel de saphir,
Du port d'Arsinoé jusqu'aux rives d'Ophir.
Ses vaisseaux fortunés, dans leur longue carriere,
Des portes de la mort franchissaient la barriere,
Et, du golfe arabique échangeant les trésors,
De l'Indus étonné reconnaissaient les bords.
Enfin, chargés des fruits qu'aux climats de l'aurore,
Sous un ciel toujours pur la terre voit éclore,
Ils venaient apporter dans le temple d'Isis,
Au trône de Néchos, aux genoux d'Amasis,
Et la myrrhe odorante, et la gomme légere,
Et l'éclatant ivoire, et le suc salutaire
Qui, mûri par les feux d'un éternel été,
Coule dans le désert pour l'Arabe indompté.
Ils venaient présenter à des maîtres avides,
Les trésors de l'Habex et ses vierges timides,
L'aromate exhalant ses piquantes odeurs ;
Et l'or, environné de ses dons corrupteurs,
Des plaisirs et des maux source antique et féconde,
L'or, pere des besoins et des crimes du monde.

' Alors, mille cités que décoraient les arts,
L'immense pyramide et les palais épars,
Du Nil énorgueilli couronnaient le rivage.
Dans les sables d'Ammon, le porphyre sauvage,
En colonne hardie élancé dans les airs,
De sa pompe étrangere étonnait les déserts ;
D'un commerce prudent la féconde sagesse
De l'Egypte éclairée assurait la richesse !
L'orgueil de l'opulence, et le sceptre des rois,
N'osaient point y braver la majesté des lois.
Là, quand la voix du Tems, ou l'inflexible Parque,
Du trône chez les morts appelait un monarque,
Avant d'ouvrir pour lui ces pompeux monumens
Que l'orgueil réclamait à ses derniers momen
Tout le peuple assemblé, composant son histoire,
Interrogeait son regne, et jugeait sa mémoire ;
Si l'abus du pouvoir, de soupçons agité,
Ou la mollesse impure au regard effronté,
De leur souffle profane avaient flétri sa vie ;

Si, toujours attentif aux discours de l'Envie.
Il avait immolé, dans ses lâches erreurs,
La vertu courageuse à d'indignes flatteurs,
Des pontifes divins l'autorité sacrée
Exilait du tombeau sa dépouille abhorrée;
Son ombre était bannie, et ses mânes errans
D'un murmure vengeur poursuivaient les tyrans.
Ainsi l'antique Egypte éclaira tous les âges;
Les peuples attirés sur ses heureux rivages,
Nourris par ses bienfaits, instruits par ses leçons,
Y puisaient tour à tour des lois et des moissons.

'O grandeur de mortels! ô tems impitoyable!
Les destins sont comblés: dans leur course immuable,
Les siecles ont détruit cet éclat passager
Que la superbe Egypte offrit à l'étrangér.
Plus de mœurs, plus de lois: le sanglant despotisme
L'ignorance, l'orgueil, l'absurde fanatisme,
Un bandeau sur les yeux, un poignard à la main,
Ecrasent le Delta sous un sceptre d'airain.
Philosophes trompés, dont la vaine science
Célebre des climats la suprême influence,
Contemplez aujourd'hui ces lieux jadis sacrés:
Les enfans d'Osiris, dans la poudre ignorés,
Languissent à genoux dans leurs viles entraves,
Et le Nil indigné coule pour des esclaves:
Les arts n'habitent plus ses rivages flétris.
L'Egypte voit envain, dans ses vastes débris,
Des héros et des rois les monumens funebres,
Briller comme la flamme au milieu des ténebres;
L'orgueil de leurs tombeaux étonne envain nos yeux:
La plus noble ruine est son nom glorieux.'

This description is long drawn, but displays reading. The following attempt at imagination, by attributing the origin of the compass to the metamorphose of a nymph, no doubt passes at Paris for a truly classical imitation of Ovid.

'Dans les glaces du Nord, où loin de nos climats,
L'Europe s'engloutit sous d'éternels frimats,
Où le vieux Océan et repousse et resserre
Deux continens rivaux qui partagent la terre,
Et sépare a jamais de ses flots suspendus
Ces mondes si long-tems l'un à l'autre inconnus,
Est un détroit fameux, où l'art et le courage
Impuissans et vaincus, sont forces au naufrage:
Là, regnent les hivers et les vents orageux;
Là, retenu six mois sur l'horison neigeux,
Le dieu du jour, banni de ses douze demeures,
Sur son char enflammé ne conduit plus les heures;
Et, six mois sur le pôle arrêtée à son tour,

La déesse des nuits tient le sceptre du jour ;
Mais de son triple front la pâleur toujours sombre,
Et ses rayons tremblans dans les masses de l'ombre,
Colorent les frimats de sa morne splendeur.
Dans ce jour imparfait, l'œil du navigateur
Cherche envain du détroit les limites glacées :
Sous l'immense fardeau des neiges entassées,
La terre et l'océan, unis et confondus,
Se dérobent ensemble aux nochers éperdus ;
Et du trône des airs, quand l'Hercule céleste
Brisant ses traits de feu sur cette mer funeste,
De ses monts de cristal a pénétré les flancs ;
Quand leur masse amollie à ses rayons brûlans,
S'écroulant à grand bruit sur les vagues grondantes,
Rouvre au loin du détroit les bouches mugissantes ;
Soudain, pour le fermer à nos hardis vaisseaux,
Un énorme géant, dominateur des eaux,
De haut de ces rochers qui flottent sur les ondes,
Garde d'un bras de fer les confins des Deux-Mondes.
La Nature expirante y gémit sous ses lois,
Les orages fougueux s'y forment à sa voix,
Et les nymphes des mers, sous son joug homicide,
Ferment à la pitié leur oreille timide.
Une seule, jadis, aux accens du malheur
Vint du tyran du pole affronter la fureur,
Viola son Empire, et, trompant sa puissance,
Au Dieu prêt à frapper déroba sa vengeance.
Vers le nord de l'Asie, et sous un Ciel nouveau,
Les vents impétueux poursuivaient un vaisseau
Qui des bords du Cattay jusqu'aux astres de l'ourse
Sur les flots soulevés précipitait sa course ;
Le pilote entraîné, sans guide, sans appui,
Dans ce gouffre inconnu qui s'ouvre devant lui,
De son art impuissant fatigue envain l'audace ;
L'air mugit, la mer gronde, et la terre menace ;
La terre, dont les bords gardés par les hivers,
De mobiles rochers et de frimats couverts,
N'offrent dans tous les tems aux nautonniers avides
Que des ports orageux et des plages perfides.
Ces bords ont retenti du cri des matelots,
Qui, repoussés au loin sur l'abyme des flots,
Entre le Ciel qui tonne et la Mer en furie,
Appellent vainement les Dieux de leur Patrie,
Ces rivages si doux, ces fortunés climats,
Et leurs foyers chéris qu'ils ne reverront pas.
Cris impuissans ! Déjà soulevant son empire,
Le géant formidable a touché le navire ;
Il s'entr'ouvre, il échappe aux matelots tremblans ;

Le flot tumultueux bouillonne dans ses flancs;
Le timon s'est brisé sous la vague écumante,
Et sur les mâts rompus la voile frémissante
A la fureur des vents dispute ses lambeaux.
Tout-à-coup, ô prodige! et de l'air et des eaux
Le tumulte est calmé par des mains invisibles;
Un nuage étendu sur les ondes paisibles,
Entourant le vaisseau d'un voile officieux,
Cache, protege et suit son cours silencieux.
Au milieu du détroit, dans une nuit obscure,
Il glisse sur le flot qui retombe et murmure;
Sur ce gouffre écumant qu'il tremblait d'approcher,
Une jeune immortelle apparaît au nocher,
Et d'un timon plus sûr arme ses mains timides:
Telles, sortant jadis de leurs grottes humides,
Pour ces proscrits fameux, peres du peuple-roi,
Vers le camp des Troyens frappés d'un long effroi,
Les Nymphes de la mer sur l'onde mutinée
Guidaient le fils d'Evandre et la flotte d'Enée.
Enfin, vainqueur des vents et d'un tyran jaloux,
Loin des climats glacés que garde son courroux,
Le vaisseau fugitif échappait a sa vue;
Soudain, d'un cri terrible il déchire la nue;
Le navire paraît à ses yeux menaçans
Et les vents déchaînés leur portent ses accens:
" Pilote audacieux! le destin qui t'entraine,
Pour la premiere fois triomphant de ma haine
T'ouvre ces bords sacrés soumis à mon pouvoir,
Et que l'œil des mortels ne doit jamais revoir.
Va jouir de faveurs qu'il vend à ton courage;
Aux rives d'Amalfi, sauvé par un naufrage,
Va de ta course impie épuiser le bonheur;
J'attache à ton vaisseau l'arrêt de ma fureur.
Je veux que l'art fatal dont il étend l'empire,
Des conquêtes par-tout enflamme le délire;
Que deux Mondes ouverts à ses vastes desseins
Reçoivent ses présens teints du sang des humains,
Et ne crois pas qu'un jour chez les races futures
Du tems et de l'oubli repoussant les injures,
Guide des nautonniers par des chemins nouveaux,
Ton nom victorieux consacre tes travaux:
Ton sort est de périr sans honneur et sans gloire
Et loin de ces climats témoins de ta victoire,
Dans un asyle obscur à jamais retenu.
De changer l'Univers sans en être connu.

" Et toi qui, dirigeant sa voile audacieuse,
Crois soumettre aux efforts d'une race odieuse

Ces mers dont la colere obéit à ma voix,
Tu n'échapperas point au prix que je te dois.
Déjà malgré le sort qui t'enchaine à la vie,
La lumiere du jour à tes yeux est ravie;
Vis au sein d'une pierre inconnue aux mortels,
Divinité sans nom, sans forme et sans autels."

'Il dit, et tout-à-coup la nymphe fugitive,
Sous l'aimant qui l'enferme immobile et captive,
Disparait aux regards des nochers eperdus;
L'œil cherche vainement les traits qu'elle a perdus;
Sous la pierre muette une main vengeresse,
D'un voile impénétrable a couvert la déesse.'

We wish every desirable success to a poem so popular in its topic, so learned in its details, so copious, fluent, smooth, and correct in its diction; and so studiously ornamented, as Boileau recommends, with no other fabulous allusions than to the notorious mythology of the ancient Roman poets.

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ART. VI.—*De Amoribus Pancharitis et Zoroæ, &c.*

*The Loves of Pancharis and Zoroa, an Erotico-Didactic Poem; or a Treatise on the ancient Worship of Venus at Miletus, as it was found in a Temple at Amathus, and published at Athens, accompanied with various Remarks on the Generation of Vegetables and Animals.* 8*vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

THE author of these Latin verses was born at Paris in 1749. His father was a Savoyard; his mother a Fleming. In 1762 he was sent to the Mazarine college, whence he was removed in about three years, and apprenticed to a surgeon named Brasdor. He went out to the East-Indies in a medical capacity, at the beginning of the year 1774, with letters to M. Anquetil, the French consul at Surat. Having to touch at the Cape of Good Hope, he there became acquainted with professor Thunberg of Upsal, and botanised in his company. At Surat he practised physic in the winter season, but spent the summer in travelling. Sonnerat was his companion in some of these excursions. In 1777 he returned to Europe, and graduated at Rheims in 1778. Not succeeding in an application to accompany Choiseul-Gouffier as physician to the embassy at Constantinople, he became a writer by profession, at Paris, in the medical line. He published in 1786 on Milk; visited England in 1787, and translated, on his return, many medical works of the English—by Macbride, by Fothergill, by Cruikshank, and by Nisbet. He assisted in the medical department of the Encyclopædia copiously. Disgusts, originating in the revolution, induced him to

embark in 1793 for the isle of Mauritius, where he spent three months: he thence went to the isle Reunion, and was witness of a volcanic eruption. He next travelled to Pondicherry, visited Madras, and was conveyed in an American vessel from the East-Indies to Long-Island. Boston, Philadelphia (an account of whose prison Mr. Radel has published separately), New-York, and other American towns, were visited by our author; who returned in 1797 to France, and obtained a lectureship in one of the medical schools of Paris, the functions of which he continues to discharge.

Such is the substance of a Latin autobiography, prefixed by the author to this collection of love-elegies. The description of Surat, and the account of the volcano in the isle of Reunion, may furnish some accessions to geographical knowledge; but for a man of science, whose opportunities of observation were so extraordinary and various, there is a disappointing absence of valuable fact. We can say but little in praise of his Latin, which he has affected to strew with the flowers of Parnassus; and his dry garden contains few specimens of plants, till then anonymous in the Linnæan lexicons of Flora.

The preface thus states the argument of the poems.

'Zoroas Epheso natus ex Alcimedone Megariensi avis clarissimo, et Athenis, ut mos erat quibus res non angusta domi, scholam Platonicam secutus, præceptisque optimi philosophi imbutus ea ætate qua virtutis semina germinant, iis obtemperavit, donec annis provectior asseclam se stiterit Epicureæ doctrinæ. Sic, qui prius ingenue vixerat juvenis, ut ferebant dogmata sapientis magistri, cautusque futuri foverat animum utiliore cibo, mox in castra Epicuri transfuga, molliori, imo solutiori genere dies ducere non solum cœpit, sed etiam coæquales in suam allicere sententiam, et solertibus argumentis eos confirmare, ut ex Poematis proasmate dilucidum fit. Cecropiæ madidus Minervæ Miletum docendi causa profectus, hic appulit cum Cerealia mox peragenda essent, visaque in Deæ Sacris Pancharite, filia Cleonis, olim urbis Myriarchæ, dum munera dicaret aris, mox arsit eam, et studio puellæ invisendæ dehinc continue incubuit. At ratus se nullatenus prospere acturum, ni prius Venerem, cui nondum etiam nunc libaverat, sibi propitiam redderet, incuriæ pœnitens, Menippo consiliis intimo injuriam fatetur, et statuit de Dea bene mereri oblatis. Inde vota illi nuncupata quæ ita felix sequitur eventus, ut mater Pancharitis, natæ consulens eximiis ingenii dotibus, et cupiens eam melioribus imbui philosophiæ præceptis, audita Zoroæ mira de iis doctrina, non solum decrevit eam huic committere, sed etiam in familia sua illum admittere, ut plenius inde et frequentius fluerent progeniei documenta. Recepto de hocce adimplendo munere gratissimo nuntio, in lætas voces juvenis erumpit. Admis-

sus, moxque seorsim fungens officio, discipulam aucupio tentat verborum scopo consonorum, quæ cum, non intellecta, caderent irrita, ipsi fatetur se nimis inconsulte egisse dum partes magistri erga eam susciperet, et ne fata deinceps eant utrique lugenda, adprecatur illam ut citius se ab officio manumittat. Renuit Pancharis, præceptoremque præmunit contra invidiæ stimulos; sed suæ consulens famæ, admonet eum se cum ipso dehinc privatim studio non incubituram. Zoroas de aversa voluntate eam arguens, argumenta subnectit, scilicet, ut attendat ipsius formæ et annis; spe tamen ita fluitat ut vespere sub dio meditans, omnes ruris honores participes suorum animi affectuum efficiat, dum varios revolvit casus quibus irretitur. Discipula eum reprehendit de præconcepta sententia, nec tamen obsurdescit; inde præceptoris proseucticon Cupidini, ut vulneret jugalis fœderis rudem. Confisus imagini quæ sibi somnianti per noctem objecta fuerat, suæ mentis nudat penetralia, suumque amorem plenius patefacit, cui recèns icta morem gerit Pancharis, se victam confitens. Hinc series amatoriorum colloquiorum, doctrinaque de amoribus et generatione vegetantium tum animatium. Hinc lætæ effusiones, oppressiunculæ, voculæ falsæ et ea genialia tentamina quæ libandæ Veneri præeunt, et citius ad oblata Deæ ferenda frigidiores non solum invitant, imo eos fervidius accendunt. Hinc amantibus ignea epinicia, polychronia, et recordatio quibus evanidas voluptates iterum atque iterum sibi revolvunt. Hinc tandem deliria in quibus expanduntur voces fruituris consonæ, juramenta quæ æternum spondent amorem, metus ne ignes latitantes palam prodantur, imprecationes contra rigidiores Cupidinis detrectatores, migrationis desiderium, et ea communium argumentorum series qua callent amatorii carminis scriptores refovere languentis Lectoris sensus, et eum narrationis filo appensum longius et gratius detinere. At ea qua vivimus terra, nemo est ab omni parte beatus; sic quamvis Zoroas pleniore fruatur amatæ possessione, nihilominus ulteriora fovet vota. Altrinsecus Pancharis intus monetur acre quid latere in fœdere cum præceptore inito, et de hoc suspiciones suas aperit Iphiæ amicæ jamjam Samon ituræ, eamque precatur ut a celebri Sibylla ibi degente exquirat, num felicem eventum necne habitura sit a fœderatis icta fides. Eam torquet infausta responsio, et quidquam mali de his præsagiens ipsius magister, erumpit in objurgatorias voces. Tandem fœdus solvit Pancharis, et acta stimulis conscientiæ, in febrem incidit jamjam ad Orcum eam missuram. Unde Zoroæ luctuosi planctus, ululatus, epicedium quibus fides defunctæ palam asseritur. Ad neglectæ philosophiæ lenimina se vertit; sed intus alens sibi dolorem inexhaustum, cum ei cuncta passim præteritas voluptates commemorent, oneri vitæ ulterius ferendo imparem se fatetur. At fortuito ruri commonitus ut seriem malorum abrumpat, Leucatæ montes adeundo, vir morem gerit consilio. Attamen an-

tequam se mari det precipitem, de vitæ incommodist et ædio sermonem habet, invocatisque omnibus jugi Numinibus, mox sponte demergitur.' P. CV.

As for the love elegies themselves, they are sickening. Modern Latin verses, like modern English couplets, all seem cast in a regular set of moulds. He who has read Pope has read all the subjequent poetry: every warbler has his tune by heart. So he who has read Ovid and Virgil is familiar with every form of line he is to expect, and knows before hand the hemistichs with which new changes are pretended to be rung. Those golden verses, as Dryden calls them, consisting of two substantives, two adjectives, and a verb between them to keep the peace, are very common both in the Georgics and in Windsor Forest; and are supplied by the dozen in every page of the would-be now-a-day Virgils and Popes. Of these lines by recipe, these verses by rote, these smooth, insipid, uninteresting phrases in metre, there are quite enough to weary the most persevering reader in the volume before us. A single specimen will suffice.

'Sole sub æstivo gelidas prope Biblidis undas,
Dum fesso pecori gratior umbra foret;
Sola gravem somnum spirabat ad ilicis umbram
Pancharis, et stratæ cespitis herba torus.
Quicquid erat laquearis ei dabat arbor opaca,
Mulcebatque animum fons strepitantis aquæ.
Aura levis cirros stringebat amantius unctos,
Spargebatque comæ quidquid odoris erat.
Pancharitis curas Morpheus lenibat inanes,
Vimque papaveream blandus alebat ei.
Anxia gens avium placidam ne forte cierent,
In ramis stantes continuere modos.
Diva Venus! niveos linum sine lege recurrens
Artus velabat deliciasque meas.
Hærebat cervix lævo dellexa lacerto,
Dexter obumbrabat castra cupita philis.
Ornabant humeros flores; per eburna capilli
Colla latusque sibi composuere viam:
Absque suo motu nec erant tunc pectoris orbes,
Quos bene perque vices exagitabat Amor.
Creber erat motus nisus arcente theristro:
Sors bona! visoram quam meminisse juvat!
Somnia læta, susurravi, queis nocte sub atra
Mens mea sæpe nothis luditor acta jocis;
Nunc demissa polo lepide versate puellam,
Ut sciat a vobis jura fovenda philo,
Solvite opus; cupidum meme monstrate volutum

Ad genua illius, sit mihi sermo pius.
Mitescat, videatque dolens ab imagine fœda
Quæ mea nunc vexent corda cupido, metus.
Et licet indignetur, amans tamen approbet ausus,
Jureque jurando mox cohibebo minas.
Interea Zephyrus strophium leve movit amicus,
Sic erat ipsius me penes omne decus.
Halitus o! alter, dixi, rosa verna refulgent
Jam mihi, vos animæ; mox levis aura favet.
Omnes lemnisci franguntur: at unicus obstat
Nexus; abit lente, deliciæque pagent.
Successere novæ veneres, alabastrus hiavit
Suaviter hic inter lilia multa rubens.
Uror, et accedo propius temerarius illi;
Figet et os nymphæ stigmata trina meum,
O cui non similem Gnidiis legere rosetis
Alcinoive solo, nec Lilibæon habet.
Evolo; mox ardore nimis cruciata corymbo
Virgo tulit dextram, qua volitabat apis:
Hanc rosa pulchra sinus deceperat, unde relictis
Vallibus astiterat fenore ducta cibi.
Siccine, me lædis, dixit, mucrone cruento?
Plectere pro damnis quæ geminata placent.
O ignosce dolum, clamavi, parce fatenti;
En apis ipse; luam quæ mea furta manent:
Vel potius patiaris opem ferat ipsa dolori,
Quem prius excivit, callida nuper apis.' P. 133.

In the progress of the versification many traces occur of the perusal of the vernacular erotic poetry of the chevalier de Parny; but too well known, even beyond the boundaries of France, for the lewd graces and profane impudence of his wanton, but successfully prostituted, muse. Our author, though not so coarse, is not so stimulant; he betrays less of the cynicism, but less of the warmth of libidinousness; and, like the secondary combatant in the second book (line 189) of the Dunciad, is, 'through perfect modesty o'ercome.'

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ART. VII.—*Erotopsie, ou Coup-d'Œil, &c.*

*Erotopsia, or a Coup-d'Œil of Erotic Poetry, and of those Greek and Latin Poets who have distinguished themselves in that Line. A Work which may serve as a Sequel to that of Dr. Petit-Radel, entitled, "The Loves of Pancharis and Zorea.*

THIS *erotopsie* is a critical history of the amorous effusions scattered among the classical poetry of the ancients. The more voluptuous passages of Homer are indicated; the most success-

ful translations of them selected and produced; and an estimate of their merit follows. Sappho, Mimnermus, Anacreon, Plato, Menander, Theocritus, Antipater, are anatomised in like manner; and the parts over which chastity would throw a veil, are made the exclusive objects of dissection and commentary. The Latin erotic poets next pass in review. Catullus, Gallus, Virgil, Tibullus, Horace, Propertius, the author of the *Pervigilium Veneris*, Ovid, Petronius, Ausonius, and some others, furnish elegant extracts, or pretences for paraphrastic translation. The author keeps within the bounds of what a Frenchman calls delicacy; and leaves concealed, in the obscurity of a learned language, those passages reprehensible for their coarse wording, or their improper imagery. He wholly omits brothel poetry. The collection of passages is very incomplete; the versions are seldom distinguished for their felicity; the criticisms display no exquisiteness of taste; and the whole work might have remained unprinted with little loss to the public.

A translation of the *Cupido cruci affixus* of Ausonius is one of the most pleasing things: it has been entitled by our author,

*L'Amour fouetté.*

'Près des champs consacrés aux ombres fortunées,
Loin du séjour affreux des éternels tourments,
Sont des lieux peu connus; retraites qu'aux amants
Proserpine et Pluton jadis ont destinées.
On n'y voit point régner les ombres de la nuit;
Ce n'est point un jour pur que l'on y voit éclore.
Une clarté douteuse y luit,
Pareille à la naissante Aurore.
C'est là que ces beautés, de qui les noms fameux
Remplissent la fable et l'histoire,
En amusant les dieux rappélent la mémoire
De leurs malheurs et de leurs feux.
L'ambitieuse imprudente
Qui voulut voir Jupiter
Avec la foudre brûlante,
Se reproche un malheur qu'elle paya si cher.
La tendre épouse de Céphale
Déteste une jalouse erreur,
Et brise la flèche fatale
Qu'elle retire de son cœur.
Héro d'une main tremblante
Tient la lampe étincelante
Qui lui servit seulement
A voir périr son amant.
Ariane roule en colère
Le fil, triste instrument d'un perfide attentat:
Hélas! elle a trahi son père

En faveur d'un amant ingrat.
A son vainqueur absent Phèdre encor sacrifie
Ses enfants, son trône et ses jours;
Et tour à tour accuse et justifie
Ses involontaires amours.
Moins coupable cent fois et plus à plaindre qu'elle,
Et Didon et Thisbé vont se frapper le sein.
D'un amant qui la fuit l'une a le fer en main,
L'autre tient le poignard d'un amant trop fidèle;
A leurs cris éclatants l'Amour vient dans ces lieux:
Le traître dans leurs maux admire son ouvrage;
Malgré l'épaisseur d'un nuage
Son carquois, son flambeau le décèle à leurs yeux.
Déja la cohorte rebelle
Le menace; il veut fuir, il ne bat que d'une aîle.
Il tombe, on le saisit; il verse en vain des pleurs:
Attaché sur un myrte, une fureur nouvelle
Va de tous les tourments rassembler les horreurs.
Amour, l'une à ton sein présente cette épée
Par qui sa trame fut coupée;
L'autre offre à tes regards les débris enflammés
Du bûcher où ses jours ont été consumés.
Mirrha, de qui les dieux ont endurci les larmes,
En fait pour t'accabler de redoutables armes.
Pourquoi, s'écria-t-il, pourquoi tant de fureurs?
Cruelles, pouvez-vous connaître
Qui du sort ou de moi cause tous vos malheurs?
Il est aveugle autant que je puis l'être.
Eh! n'avez-vous jamais éprouvé mes douceurs?
Mais je vais, si j'ai tort, réparer mes erreurs;
Le remède est tout prêt, je puis vous en instruire.
Là coule le Léthé; je veux vous y conduire.
Ce fleuve fait aux rois oublier leurs grandeurs,
Aux esclaves leurs chaînes.
Vos jours furent mêlés de plaisirs et de peines,
Là vous oublierez tout, et les ris et les pleurs.
Tout oublier, Amour! ah, c'est trop! dirent-elles.
Si l'un sans l'autre, hélas! ne se peut effacer,
Laisse-nous tous les deux. Tes peines sont cruelles,
Mais tes biens sont trop doux pour ne plus y penser.'

The author of this work is also known by a *Dictionnaire de Chirurgie*, in three volumes quarto, which forms a part of the *Encyclopedie par ordre de matières;* by several medical pamphlets and translations; and by a Latin poem on the Loves of Pancharis and Zoroa, of which we have already given an account.

ART. VIII.—*Essai sur l'Esprit, &c.—Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation of Luther. By Charles Villers.* 8vo. Imported by De Boffe. 1804.

ART. IX.—*Esquisse de l'Histoire de l'Eglisse, &c.—Sketch of the History of the Church from its Founder to the Reformation: serving as an Appendix to the Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation. By Charles Villers.* 8vo. Imported by De Boffe. 1804.

THE propriety of discussing these two publications in the same article is obvious from the title of the latter: in effect, they are but two parts of the same work. The name of M. Villers is by no means unknown to us; and we have already had occasion to glance at him, as the author of this Essay, in our progressive statement of the prize questions proposed by the National Institute; to the following of which the disquisition before us was judged a successful reply:—'What has been the influence of the Reformation of Luther upon the political situation of the different European states, and upon the progress of knowledge?'

It is barely three months ago that we had occasion to call the attention of our readers to the entire system of Luther, as contained in M. Freylinghausen's Abstract of the whole Doctrine of the Christian church: a book edited, at the express instance of her majesty, by one of the first dignitaries of the English hierarchy. The intention was no doubt good, and we gave it full credit; while we lamented that so much pains should have been bestowed upon a system, antiquated in its tenets, declining in its reputation, and, so far as appeared from the work then under our survey, incapable of general recommendation or support. Little, however, did we at that time expect that we should be so soon called upon to contemplate the same system in its political point of view, or in reference to the influence it long continued to exercise over the cabinets of Europe. With respect to its antiquated dress, and declining attractions, M. Villers agrees with us in the following passage:

'The Institute, in inquiring what *has been* the influence of the Reformation of Luther, sufficiently indicates that it regards this influence as no longer possessing any active existence in the present day. Nearly three centuries indeed have elapsed since its first explosion: the agitation which followed subsided by degrees; the power which originally gave it impulse, and which produced so many novel appearances, has ceased to operate as an active force—as a productive principle. The institutions which it created, and which it modified in the greater number of points, remain; though many have vanished away; while those which have continued follow the uniform course of the events of our own day, and the Reformation is no longer the

immediate cause which directs that course. It has accomplished, perhaps, all it ought to accomplish.' P. 5.

Mr. Villers has read more than he has arranged or digested: we have hence—a fault common to the greater part of his countrymen, but which the National Institute has taken some pains to correct—casual and indefinite glances at history, instead of regular and detached references; and a vast complication of minute or mediate causes, rather than the direct and immediate line of succession. We are neither told expressly by what means the Vatican acquired the summit of its political as well as spiritual authority, nor the precise and direct means by which the unshaken reformer before us was enabled, to a certain degree, to accomplish his object. As to the first, we are left almost entirely in the dark; while, with regard to the second, we have, in the first place, to make a hasty tour over India, Arabia, Greece, and Italy; to be present at the invasion of the crusaders, and the irruption of the northern Barbarians into France and Germany; and afterwards to take a more minute and individuated view of Europe as well *Protestant* as Catholic; of Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Geneva, Holland, England, the *United States of America*, Spain, France, Italy, Poland, Russia, before we can acquire any exact data to reason from; when, as though to give unity and effect to the whole, 'Is not,' inquires our author, 'the great event which I am now considering, of itself the simple result of other events which have preceded it, insomuch that I ought to attribute to such events, and not to itself, which was nothing more than an intermediate transaction, the real origin of whatever followed?' So that at last, in the multitude of our author's inquiries, in the enormous extent of his landscape, the Reformation, upon whose spirit and influence he undertakes to write, is by a single dash of the pen reduced to a non-entity in the train of causes and effects—an evanescent point of no moment or importance to the prospect.

'Such is the lot of the mind in its researches: while it looks before it, the point from which it starts seems to itself to be the fixt basis from which all its subsequent steps issue. If it cast its eye backwards, the point of inception appears nothing more than a necessary succession of points that precede it—the mere passage by which to reach those which follow. To the eye of the mind every cause, in ascending, becomes a simple effect; every effect, in the same manner, becomes a cause in descending. The inclination which induces us to attribute whatever follows an event to that event itself, as if it were the cause of it, is the conducting thread which enables us to arrange every historic fact; it is the law of cohesion by which the present is at-

tached to the past. To ascend, however, from an effect to a cause, as though to the first cause which self-exists, and is no longer the effect of any other cause, is a weakness of the understanding which is hunting for an absolute principle on which to build its speculations. It is in this slippery path that metaphysics lose themselves. A man who should be ignorant of what is the meaning of the course of a river, and who, upon reaching its banks, beholds it spreading over a vast plain, and follows it thence through narrow vallies, foaming at its utmost verge with the fall of a cataract—such a man would mistake for the rise of the river the first curvature that might conceal its current: advancing by another curvature, the cataract itself might in like manner deceive him; having finally reached its source, he would mistake the mountain whence it issues for the first cause of the river: soon, however, would he perceive that the sides of such mountain would be exhausted by so continued a torrent; he would hence look towards the congregated clouds, the rains, without which the arid mountain would furnish no reservoir. Here, then, it is the clouds that become the first cause; but it is the winds that, sweeping over immense seas, conduct the clouds; while it is the sun that immediately rears them from the ocean. Yet whence this power of the sun?—Behold then the inquirer entangled in the researches of speculative physics, in investigating a cause—an absolute foundation—whence he may primarily account for this train of phenomena.

'Thus the historian who investigates what was the cause that produced a decline in the authority of the popes, the terrible thirty years' war, the humiliation of the house of Austria, the establishment of a powerful opposition in the bosom of the empire, the foundation of Holland as a free state, and so of the rest, ought in the first instance to perceive the immediate origin of all these events in the Reformation, and to attribute them to its influence. But pressing these researches still higher, he perceives that the Reformation itself is evidently nothing more than a necessary result of other circumstances which preceded it, an event of the sixteenth century with which the fifteenth was pregnant, to adopt an expression of Leibnitz; or at most the cataract of the river. How many people still obstinately pretend to find the first cause of the French revolution in the *deficit*, in the convention of the states-general, in the *tiers-état*, in the *curés!* Others, who extend their view a little wider, attempt to discover it in the *Maupeou* parliament, in the extinction of the Jesuits, &c.—They are all right in a certain bounded point of view from which they contemplate it. Those, nevertheless, whose sight surveys the progress of human nature through a series of ages, behold at once this enormous mass of

individuals of which it consists, every one of whom, actuated by his interest, his passions, and self-love, seems anxious to oppose the progress of all the rest: but, in spite of their infinite diversity, all these dispositions possess common features, tend towards certain ends, which are ultimately the same: these features, these inclinations common to all, constitute a re-union of powers, or rather a single power, which is that of human nature—that of an universal spirit—which, concealed amidst the epochs of time, guides and governs them. Beneath the empire of Providence (that sun of the moral world! to adopt still further the expression of a philosopher), this spirit of human nature, in its perpetual motion, prepares and disposes events. This vast revolution, which astonishes us, is nothing more than a production, a result, a brilliant manifestation of it. Is it, then, to it—is it not rather to the influence of the causes by which itself has been preceded and introduced—that we ought to ascribe the events which have followed it?' P. 5.

We have chosen this extract because it presents a fair specimen of the rambling and desultory manner in which the present essay is for the most part written. There is, perhaps, no book to which this passage might not apply, and into the preface of which it might not enter as a constituent portion. And upon a careful perusal of it our readers may perhaps feel as thankful as ourselves that the author has not extended his researches still further, and carried us back, if not for the reformation of Luther, at least for the revolution in his own country and the imperial dignity of Bonaparte, to the *tower of Babel*, and the expulsion of Adam from Paradise. With the views, and upon the plan, of M. Villers, there would be no knowing where to rest with regard to any subject; every event would cease to be immediately operative; every cause would become a cause no longer, or, in the language of the logicians of the continent, would be metamorphosed into a *fallacia*, a *causa non causa*: we should for ever have to run up and down the σειρην χρυσην—

——————— the golden everlasting chain
Whose strong embrace holds heaven, and earth, and main—

before we could satisfy ourselves as to the real source of the most trivial event that occurs, whether a variation in the thermometer, or in the mind of a mistress. Without wandering half so far, we think we could have condensed into a dozen pages the whole, or the chief, of those facts which the generality of mankind might agree to regard as causes sufficiently direct and pro-egumenal, as well with regard to the rise, summit, and decline of the papal power, as to the rise, propagation, and triumph of the reformation of Luther, which bore immediately upon it; and causes, too, which are not even glanced at in

the essay before us. The conversion of Constantine established the Christian religion by secular authority: the situation of the see of Rome, more central than those of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, gave it a degree of influence, as well with the church at large as the successors to the imperial throne, which the rival bishoprics in vain endeavoured to possess; and thus ultimately secured to itself an acknowledged supremacy in the hierarchy. The ecclesiastical constitution being in this manner completed, a multitude of causes contributed to the augmentation of its power and magnificence. The spirit of ambition, which so perpetually agitates the bosom of secular princes, appeared with no less frequency or violence in the head of the church; and, following the example of the arch-pontiff, every inferior ecclesiastic surrendered himself to the same inordinate passion; and, by the hopes and fears of a future world, obtained by degrees an unlimited control over the consciences and actions of the people among whom they resided. The power that was possessed by the church, and hence collectively by the tiara, even in the age of Hildebrand himself, is not much to be wondered at by those who closely contemplate the sources of its authority and the extent of its operation. The hierarchy was an immense republic, seated in the very heart of Europe, and radiating, in every possible point, over the whole continent: it afforded to every family, in every nation, but especially to the younger and unendowed branches of the superior classes, the chance of a very ample provision for life:—its highest dignities, as in most other republics, were open to its most friendless and destitute member; and its supreme head was represented to the people at large as the immediate successor of St. Peter, the vicar of our Saviour himself. Thus impregnably fortified, both internally and externally, it is obvious that nothing but the grossest misconduct and impolicy of its own could shake its firm foundation; and it is to such misconduct and impolicy that we are to look for its decline and fall. The catholic church beheld itself at the zenith of its power on the election of Hildebrand to the pontificate, under the name of Gregory VII., in the eleventh century. His immediate successors had contented themselves with being *governors* of kings; Hildebrand aimed at becoming a *maker* of them: in one or two instances he succeeded; but he gave to kings in general such a distaste for his *paternal* authority, that how much soever they might find it prudent to pretend to submission, there began to be a general desire to become liberated from so galling a bondage. It was at this period that the first idea was started concerning croisades, or those attempts which were shortly afterwards carried into effect, of recovering Palestine from the hands of the Turks and Arabs. This idea is also attributed to the same pontiff; and it produced

ultimately, though in a very different manner, still more mischief to the tiara than his open efforts to exercise a temporal tyranny over the princes who acknowledged his spiritual power. To accommodate the Christian army with a sufficient number of ecclesiastics was found extremely inconvenient, if not impossible; and hence, as it was foreseen that multitudes of brave soldiers would have no opportunity of receiving, in the usual way, the occasional pardon of the church upon confession, or her final pardon in the hour of death, the successors of Hildebrand, and especially Clement V., invented the convenient system of *indulgences*, which was afterwards extended to other persons than croisaders; and, branching out into an infinitude of paths, embraced at length almost every species of immorality and crime that could be committed, upon the advance of a sum of money adequate, or supposed to be adequate, to the guilt of the offender. It was impossible that mankind at large could have their eyes sealed against such absurdities any longer; that they should not be scandalised at such a mummery of religion; that the shackles which had long riveted them should not sit more loosely, and afford a prospect of dropping off; and that people and princes should not unite in the same wish to behold the church reformed, and the power of the Vatican retrenched. In effect, Philip the Fair of France had already ventured to seise possession of the person of Boniface VIII., the existing pope, in the centre of his own estates, who had previously threatened to dethrone him, as the emperor Henry had not long before been dethroned by Gregory VII. Boniface died very shortly after his arrestation, probably from the mortification he had hereby sustained; and Philip the Fair, pursuing the conduct which he had already found so conducive to his interests, engaged to obtain the election of a bishop of his country to the tiara, upon the condition that he would continue to reside in France instead of at Rome; or, in other words, under his own immediate authority: the condition was acceded to—the French bishop was elected to the papal chair under the name of Clement V., and immediately removed it from Rome to Avignon. This was another severe blow upon the power of the tiara; for, as almost as much reverence was supposed, by the Christian world at large, to be due to the *place* as to the *person*, and Rome being now deserted by the sovereign pontiff, half the remaining authority of the pontificate seemed to have vanished. Amidst such a succession or complication of papal imprudences, impolicies, and absurdities, it is not to be wondered at, that, while mankind in general were complaining, some should have the spirit to complain louder than the rest, and endeavour to subvert the whole system, by a fair appeal to the fundamental principles of the Christian religion itself: the revival of literature, and more especially the inven-

tion of printing, propagated to every quarter these laudable exertions, and quadrupled the power they would otherwise have possessed. Still, however, the authority of the papal chair was considerable; Wickliff and Ziska barely escaped, with all their address as well as intrepidity; and Huss perished, to the everlasting disgrace of the imperial throne. The times, however, were obviously preparing for a general reformation; and hence Luther was at length able to accomplish, to a very considerable extent, what preceding reformers had attempted with but a trivial portion of success, or rather to reap the harvest which they had so hardily sown.

But it is time to return to our author, and to state more definitely the effects which he represents as having followed from the successful labours and reformation of Luther. These he divides into two classes: 1st, The results of this reformation with respect to general politics; 2dly, With respect to general literature and philosophy: upon both which his ideas are extended just as much too remotely, as with regard to the causes that introduced this event.

'The revolutions which had preceded it merely put the hands of mankind into action; the present produced work for their heads. The people, who, till this epoch, had only been reckoned as herds, passively submitting to the caprices of their leaders, began to act for themselves, became sensible of their importance, and their absolute necessity to the existence of government. Princes and people were hence for ever liberated from the excessive and burdensome power of the clergy, as well as from the terrible contest through all Europe, and which continued for so long a period, between the popes and the emperors, in respect of supreme authority. Social order became regulated and completed. *The power of Austria was restrained within its proper bounds; that of France was exalted, and acquired a control over it.* The necessity was perceived of political alliances: the political societies of Europe formed a systematised compact of equilibrium—a regularly organised *entirety*—of which not even an idea had been previously conceived. Estates, such as Sweden *and Turkey*, which had to this moment scarcely existed on account of others, assumed a rank and importance in this system. Several, like Holland, sprang from the womb of this immense shock, and acquired a considerable preponderance from their birth. The first foundations were laid of the Prussian monarchy, *and the American republic;* and the church ceased in one part of Europe to constitute a state estranged from the state: whence it is easy to predict, that the same change will hereafter extend to every part, and that its chief will be reduced to a simple spiritual metropolitan. Finally, the catholic clergy are reforming their conduct after the example of the protestant; and are obtaining

in morals, in wisdom, in respectability, whatever they have lost in wealth and power.' P. 226.

Our author proceeds to prove that our chief voyages of discovery and circumnavigation have in like manner issued from the same eventful transaction; as he does in his inquiry into its results with respect to general literature and philosophy, that, while it augmented the freedom of thought, it also conducted to the study of religion, of ancient languages, of exegeses, of archæology, history, natural philosophy; sciences moral and political; sciences mathematical and physical; polite arts; polite literature and modern languages. By way of counterbalance, however, for so many blessed and important effects, we are also unfortunately told, that it laid the foundation for prodigious troubles and wars in the political, and controversies in the theological, world; and was the first parent of secret societies—*freemasons*—rosicrucians—*mystics*—*illuminates*—jesuits—jansenists, and others, which are rather glanced at than fully expressed; but which we take for granted to be *jacobins* and *anarchists*, *Brissotins*, *Girondists*, and *Vendéans*. Mercy on us, what a creator of events was Luther!! to what an enormous progeny, among whom the good and the evil may fairly contest for the superiority, has the gigantic womb of the reformation given birth!! Well indeed may our author exclaim, as he does in the opening of his essay, that the National Institute has been hereby 'animated with the true spirit of history in stimulating a solution of the problem which it has proposed. It is glorious for every writer to have to treat, before such a tribunal of religion and politics, of these two cardinal points of human life.' P. 5.

But we proceed to the apppendix, which offers, as we have already observed, a sketch of the history of the church, from its founder to the revolution, celebrated in the preceding essay. M. Villers is not *exactly* the person we could wish for to write a narrative of the life of our Saviour; and if, in this composition, he has studied the taste of the same judges to whose appeal the preceding essay was submitted, whatever professions of Christian faith the convenience and fashion of the day may extort from them, they are professions which we should think might as easily be put off, upon another freak of the government, as we have lately seen them put on. Our author indeed decribes, in language perfectly decent and respectful, the parentage, birth, education, benevolence, precepts, and purity of the Messiah; but, in the actual character of the Messiah, he is not once introduced to us: we hear nothing of inspiration; nothing of revelation; nothing of supernatural powers. The mission of *Moses* is, in the essay, compared with that of *Mohammed*; and we were not, therefore, surprised to find a similar comparison instituted in the appendix between the revolution produced by *Cæsar*

and that by *Jesus Christ*. Yet the documents adverted to by our author are the Gospels, and he pretends not to go beyond. 'He preached,' says he, 'with a tranquil majesty of spirit, clothed with a superior mission; and which had no other office on earth than to establish among mortals truth, piety, and love. Serious, measured in his actions, ingenuous, simple and sublime in his discourses, *his soul appeared calm, transparent, and profound as the æther of heaven.* Supremely kind and affectionate, a sacred hatred of impiety, and every gross vice that accosted his sight, could alone move and enrage him for a moment. Thus is it that his four historians have painted to us Jesus.' P. 8.

But it has escaped our attention if any one of these four historians have compared the *soul* of our Saviour to *æther* of any kind, whether *calm* or *perturbated*, whether *profound* or *sublime*; and we should as soon have expected to have found them comparing it to *electricity* or *Galvanism*. In the history of the church, however, from the first glances of an incipient hierarchy to the time of Luther, it is but fair to state that our author is much more worthy of attention: he shows himself well versed in ecclesiastic polemics, and always abhorrent of tyranny, hypocrisy, and spiritual pride. He divides the term of time, to which his sketch is confined, into four periods: the first, extending from the birth of our Saviour to nearly the middle of the fourth century, he denominates a *democracy*; the second, which reaches to the commencement of the seventh century, or from Constantine to Mohammed, an *oligarchy*; the third, descending from 604 to 1073, or from Mohammed to Hildebrand, a *monarchy*; the fourth and last, including the period between the election of Hildebrand to the papal chair and the public appearance of Luther, or from 1073 to 1517, a *despotism*. We here also find, though not all the luxuriance of imagination which pervades the essay, something of the same want of compression and judgement. M. Villers would be a better writer if he read less and digested more. His Christianity is that of modern France—the form without the spirit.

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ART. X.—*C. M. Wieland's Sämmtliche Werke.*

*C. M. Wieland's Collective Works. Vol. XXXII. (Continued from our last Appendix, page* 545).

PHILOSTRATUS, who was born at Lemnos and educated at Athens, flourished as a rhetorician in Rome, under Septimius Severus, and was patronised by the literary taste of the empress Julia. He composed, at her instigation, a life of Apollonius of Thyana, which has been translated into French and English, and has not unfrequently been employed by the world of philosophists, like

Lucian's account of Alexander of Abonoteichos, as an antidote against what they call the credulity that attributes to extraordinary persons supernatural powers. This biography of Apollonius, the best edition of which is that of Olearius, printed in 1709, at Leipzig, forms the *substratum* of Wieland's Agathodæmon, a novel in Greek garments, which exactly fills his thirty-second volume.

The history of Apollonius, or of Agathodæmon, as he is here called, is not given as it *did* happen, but as it might have happened: a train of natural events being every where supposed, which were likely to initiate such marvellous and miraculous misrepresentations as have actually been made of the real Apollonius. Thus the legendary matter of Philostratus is plausibly accounted for; and a natural solution of those phenomena is attempted which heathen credulity received as true. All this is obviously designed as a side blow at other legends, or more than legends; and prepares a discussion, confined to the sixth book, of those events which occurred in Palestine during the origin of Christianity. The bestowing of so very popular a form upon disquisitions so critical, is a proof that the author rates low the utility and the prevalence of established opinions. He evidently aspires to be classed among the fathers of the anti-christian sect. The ecclesiastical historian must rank him, like Voltaire, with those who have employed the active resources of their imagination, their sagacity, and their learning, in untying the ancient and sacred bonds of the Christian religion.

To these licentious speculations we shall not introduce our readers; but they may derive both innocent and instructive amusement from an account which Apollonius is made to give of the institution of a secret society, somewhat analogous to the illuminati of the modern world.

The sage of Thyana is represented as directing, through an invisible agency, much of that conspiracy which snatched Domitian from the Roman throne, and elevated Nerva in his stead. And, in the fifth section of the fifth book, he is thus supposed to describe his share in a transaction but imperfectly accounted for by historians.

"In order to make you comprehend how the late fortunate revolution at Rome could be the work of our secret order, I will begin by explaining to you more particularly its internal constitution and structure.

"After my return from Syria and Egypt, perceiving that our adherents, especially in Asia Minor, were rapidly increasing, I endeavoured to distribute them into two main classes. In the first and most numerous class were comprehended all those who were allowed to attend the public addresses, which on all festival days I was in the habit of deliver-

ing aloud, at day-break and at sun-set, from behind a thin curtain, which scarcely intercepted the view of the audience. These discourses were commonly pronounced in the porch of a temple, and were introduced and closed by a hymn, accompanied with unseen instruments. They lasted not much more than a quarter of an hour; and consisted partly in a short account of the nature and object of the feast, partly in exhortations to a virtuous and irreproachable life, corroborated by religious feelings, and lofty ideas of the dignity of human nature. The deepest silence, and a behaviour as respectful as is exacted in the most solemn mysteries, was the only condition imposed on the attendants. Whoever was regularly remarked among them came to be reckoned in the class of the *acoustic* (or hearers) and formed the *exoteric* portion of my adherents.

"The second principal class comprehended the *esoteric* portion; or those who, by a peculiar consecration, were received into the order. This was subdivided into three grades. To the lowest belong the *epopts* (or seers), so called because they had the privilege, at all our assemblies, of standing behind the curtain: they were more commonly denominated the *homiletic*, because they conversed with me, and were at liberty to propose questions; which I either answered concisely, or, if they overstepped the limits allotted to that grade, declined to answer.

"From among these homiletic disciples, after I had sufficiently ascertained their capacity, I selected those who, under the denomination of the *ascetic*, were elevated to the second grade, with the view of preparing them during a short course of years, for the higher steps. These were daily instructed for some hours both in the theoric and practic parts of the Pythagorean philosophy; had to observe, during their whole initiation, a very strict discipline, and to submit, as moral athlets, to many severe trials, in order to bring under command their desires, inclinations, and passions. They were strictly superintended, and put to all possible proofs of secresy, privation, intrepidity, and presence of mind; and also of apathy both to bodily pain and to the provocations of anger, jealousy, voluptuousness, and of every other passion which speedily boils up. If they repeated four times the same fault, they were expelled from the esoteric class: but of this I do not recollect a single instance.

"Of the secrets of the order they knew, indeed, just as little as the homiletic; and the most unconditional obedience to their provided superiors or overseers was imposed on both as the first of duties. The advantage of this second grade over the former consisted in the certainty, that, if they went through the years of probation becomingly, they would be preferred to the third grade: whereas the homiletic, if in their very first year they were not invited to the second ordination, might be pretty sure of remaining for the rest of their lives where they were;

which was the case with that consequential simpleton Damis, although I find he would gladly have it thought that he lives with me on the most confidential footing.

"As the grade of ascetics was the seminary out of which the proper members of my order, in its narrower sense, were drawn, I bestowed peculiar care on their information, and devoted to them much of my time. I neglected nothing adapted to attract toward me their purest love, and their unlimited confidence: and I was the more certain of not missing my aim, as the great resemblance of their education to that which I had formerly given to myself produced between us a correspondence of turn so obvious, that I seemed to feel myself multiplied when among them. This resemblance was in many the more striking, as, in the selection of our ascetics, much attention was paid both to the gifts of mind and to those of person.

"In the concluding year of their probation, our ascetics were directed by their teachers, who had already received the third grade of the order, to the historical and theoretical study of the phænomena of human society; to inquiries concerning the various stages of barbarism and culture; the origin of civil institution, its different forms, the conditions of its welfare, and the causes of the decline and fall of nations. This course of instruction had for its object to bring them acquainted especially with the modern history of the Greeks and Romans; and with the immediate causes of the present condition of that vast portion of the globe subjected to the Roman yoke. Thereby they were to be prepared for the third and last grade, in which, with the name of *cosmopolites*, they were to attain a complete insight into the purpose and mystery of the order.

"The pupils now passed under my immediate tuition; and you may imagine how easy it would be to convince well-disposed young men prepared by nature and education for the noble, the great, and the beautiful, of the following propositions:

"That the whole earth is to be considered as a single state, and the whole human race as one great family in this city of God, which ought to be governed by the general mind, according to the laws of nature and reason.

"That in virtue of this order, founded on the nature of things, there can be no salvation for mankind; no rescue from the evils under which they labour until the principal branches, at least, into which the human family is divided, be brought under a constitution adapted to harmonise with universal interest, and governed by those same laws of nature and reason which preserve the order of the whole.

"And that, however great the chasm may be which intervenes between the present moral condition of mankind and that which ought to be the unshifting, irremoveable goal of

their constant pursuit, yet both exertions and means to fill up that chasm are in our power; so that we have only to study the right use of these means.

"But here was the Gordian knot, on whose dexterous solution all depended. Wherewith was this chasm to be filled, but with the ruins of that whole monstrous edifice which the effuscating demons of superstition and the capricious ministers of despotism have for thousands of years been haunting; with the rubbish of all those bulwarks behind which they lie intrenched; and with the walls of those dungeons within which they stifle the sighs of oppressed humanity? Destroyed they must be, these long established, deeply founded, artfully concatenated works of fraud and injustice, notwithstanding their strong pillars and buttresses. But how?—At once! By a single violent general concussion which would subvert half the extant constitution of the world, and crush beneath the mighty ruin millions of the human race! Could such a thought ever enter the breast of a friend to man, of a cosmopolite? Never!

"Of course there remains but one other method of accomplishing the filling up of that chasm. The demolition of what is to be destroyed must take place gradually, with precaution and prudence, but with patience and perseverance. This is not the work of one, or of a few: it can only be brought about with the help of time and favourable chances, and by the close union and well-combined activity of a considerable number of like-disposed wise and good men, under the guidance of some chieftain who may restrain or accelerate their movements, according to the exigency of circumstances.

"Such was that respectable association into which you were induced to enter; such the object of the preparations you underwent; and such the aim of our whole confederacy; toward which henceforth, among all the occupations and avocations of life, you are expected to direct a steady eye.

"A new difficulty naturally arose with the question: How were those pure and exalted maxims of cosmopolitism to be applied to the present state of things? How could the higher duties of a citizen of the world be reconciled with those of a Roman subject? In a case of collision, what conduct was to be pursued?

"The subjects composing the grade of cosmopolites were mostly young men, destined by their birth and family-relations to civil or military offices; who were of course, in such cases of collision, peculiarly liable to incur the necessity of a practical choice. They were, on the other hand, well trained to those virtues which in such cases are most necessary: they knew how to be on their guard and on the reserve; to bear and to wait. It had always been inculcated on them as important to keep within the limits of their office: the value of habitual protection

and silent aid transcending that of noisy declaration and factious sincerity. It had been recommended to them to avoid any peculiar associations, however plausible; or to undertake any thing for the cause, but what they could hope to accomplish within the pale of legitimate order, and by their own unstrengthened efforts. Prudence and foresight were instilled into them as virtues not at all less essential to the success of our endeavours than wisdom and uprightness. With this view, it was recommended to every cosmopolite to keep a *thought-book*, or memorandum-book, in which he should daily account with himself for his conduct in doubtful circumstances. Where the individual was not clear as to his duty, it was recommended to him to consult the superior, or overseer, of his district; or, if I were in the neighbourhood, the chieftain.

"One thing in which this order was distinguished, I believe, from all others, and on which I principally rely for my confidence in its perpetual utility is, that, from the moment an ascetic passes into the class of cosmopolites, or, which is the same thing, was advanced to the highest grade of the secret order, he immediately became a free agent; all his obligations ceased; no other guarantee was required of him than that which the consentaneity of his sentiments and ours secured. No oath was imposed; and as it was always taken for granted that no one would voluntarily be untrue to the duties he had undertaken, no threat, no punishment, but the regret of failure, was provided. Each thought himself as sure of every other as of himself. Love and confidence, both unlimited, were the only but the indissoluble bonds on which the whole institution reposed. Pure in its object, the progress of instruction was sure to generate a disinterested zeal for its success.

"However, as the number of cosmopolites by degrees increased to many hundreds, a certain internal policy became necessary to facilitate an uninterrupted communication between its members. In each Roman province was one overseer, to whom the different members were confided, and to whom they addressed at regular periods information on certain agreed particulars. From these overseers I myself received, with more or less celerity as circumstances required, either by letter or by travelling brethren of the order, the more essential particulars of these local registers; and, with them, intelligence concerning the situation and state of the respective provinces, the character and conduct of the Roman governor, the disposition of the people, and whatever else was likely to prove conducive to the interests of the cause. By the time this institution had lasted twenty years, I was become most intimately acquainted with the internal state of the empire, and had probably better intelligence concerning every part of it than the autocrator himself.

"However studious, even under the three first successors of

Tiberius, those reprobates to whom the reins of the state were abandoned, might be to fill the places of importance with wretches of their own kidney; yet in so immense an empire it could not but happen that here and there some honest men, who had acquired their bent in my order, attained situations which gave them authority and influence enough to help other of our members into similar stations. And although more than one of them in the bad times of Claudius and Nero had to suffer death for his fidelity, yet the number of the good kept increasing, imperceptibly perhaps to the vulgar eye, but sensibly enough to those who could take in a view of the whole. So that at the new era, which commenced with the Vespasians, we began to entertain warm hopes. I could pretty well rely upon it, that each of my cosmopolites would find out and attract about him all the good men who lay within his circle of efficacy. I could perceive that an influence was exerted which tended to ameliorate ordinary men, and to keep within bounds many of the bad. For, as is commonly the case in corrupt times, there were more good than was supposed: most had lain by, in quiet expectation of a better futurity; but they knew one another, and came forward at once as soon as they could do it with security, and saw the prospect of acting in concurrence with some utility.

"The sway of the Vespasians would have advanced our grand object considerably, if it had lasted longer. But the hopes of the human race vanished with the short dawn of Titus, and gave place to the gloomy day, which, under his worthless brother, threatened the world with a relapse into the times of Caligula and Nero. You yourself have been a witness to the worst portion of the reign of this no less contemptible than hateful tyrant; it is, therefore, very superfluous to justify what I am about to reveal by any narration of his enormities. Had it not been for the risk, which any premature movements would have brought on, of throwing the human race once more into the hands of a new monster, I should rather need an apology for having waited so long before steps were taken to deliver us from that cold-blooded cruel brute."

'During this relation, which had too much interested both the speaker and hearer to allow our attending to things above us, a dark cloud had climbed from the eastern horizon, and was now in awful silence approaching our zenith. Already for some time the thunder had been heard to roll majestically and with increasing loudness among the rocks and precipices; and the clouds, driven by stormy gusts and scattering frequent lightnings, lowered about us on all sides, without Apollonius's appearing to remark this sudden change of a scene lately so clear. He calmly continued speaking, but had hardly uttered the last words, when, within five or six paces of the covering under

which we sat, a violent flash struck a tall cypress before us, and split it with a tremendous crashing down to the very root. I am not ashamed to acknowledge, that at a moment when we seemed inwrapt in the fires of heaven itself, I shuddered to the back-bone, as if the natural causes of this meteoric apparition had never been explained to me. Yet I preserved enough presence of mind to observe at the time Apollonius, who was sitting opposite to me, and, I assure you, Timagenes, that, except an involuntary closure of his eyelids, not the slightest symptom of terror was to be detected about him. On the contrary, his majestic countenance and awful figure, and the silver locks about his temples, acquired, in the strange and splendid illumination of the heavenly flame, a something of more than terrestrial stamp. I felt inclined to fall prostrate at his feet, and worship him as a more than mortal being.

"Meanwhile we were necessitated by the drifting rain to quit the porch, and take refuge in the interior of the dwelling. The pressure of a concealed spring opened to us the door through which the daughter of Kymon had made her appearance, and we found ourselves in the hall of yesterday, opposite the busts of Pythagoras and Diogenes. "A few paces nearer to the cypress," said Apollonius to me with a look of emotion and a gentle pressure of my hand, "would at once have opened to us a world of which we both, near as it is to us, have not the slightest idea; and which, therefore, shall not interfere with the continuance of the history, in which for a moment we were interrupted." 'We took seats, and he thus continued his relation.'

"You will, without my remarking it, have perceived that the idea of my Pythagorean order was evolved gradually; and that, insensibly, and only in order to adapt it to the wants of the times, it acquired a political tendency, which formed no part of the original purpose. If ambition and the love of sway did at all mingle in my views, and in those of my cosmopolitical friends, it took place so gently that we did not perceive it; for our souls were free from selfish aims. No one of us played any principal part on the stage. We only wished to have the good done; no matter by whom. Wont, like invisible spirits, to operate in concealment, we were content to leave the rewards of success to those, who often, unconsciously perhaps, lent us their eyes, their tongue, their arm, or their purse.

"From the time when Domitian dropped the mask of a milder Tiberius, behind which he had endeavoured for years to conceal his voluptuous inactivity, his bluntness to impressions of the beautiful and the good, his trampling insolence, and his suspicious, cruel, capricious temper—the thought arose within me: now is a time to do something great and decisive for mankind. Things were come to such a pass, that, if a reign like Domitian's

had endured twenty years longer, the corruption of the immense Roman states would have attained a maturity of putrescence for which every remedy would have come too late. Still excessive haste seemed more dangerous than forbearance. To blot out of the world a tyrant universally hated was not difficult; but it would have been an unpardonable madness, if this had taken place before one could be reasonably certain that it would conduce to the salvation of the empire. This stood in need of an emperor who should combine the rarest talents and virtues: there was so much to undo, so much to ameliorate, so much to restore, and so much to prop and to strengthen. But never was Rome so poor in men, among whom to choose. The capable were the more difficult to find, as distinguished personal qualities were obliged to conceal themselves from the jealousy of the tyrant, as under good princes the flagrant vices conceal themselves.

"Acilius Glabrio and Ulpius Trajanus, who in the eleventh year of Domitian together executed the consular office, appeared to me, among those whom I knew, the only ones who in eminent personal worth rivalled each other. The former had the advantage of descending from an ancient patrician family. A singular incident had recently drawn the public attention to this man, and made him at once an object of the admiration and pity of the Romans. During his consulship, Domitian, at a feast given in his Albanian villa, had compelled him by a joke, which left no alternative to a man of spirit, to undertake a combat with a most formidable lion. Glabrio accomplished the dangerous adventure with so much courage, presence of mind, and skill, that the spectators could not suppress the loud expression of their interest for the victor, and their ill-will at the unfeeling levity of the emperor, who had played with the life of a Roman consul as with that of a malefactor. The jealous tyrant imputed this very sympathy of the people as a crime to Glabrio, and hinted that, in permitting him to choose a place of exile out of Italy, there was room for gratitude to his clemency and generosity.

"As for Trajan, whom fate had destined for the saviour of and restorer of his country, circumstances were so to concur, that, while many of inferior note were sacrificed to the mistrust of a tyrant always on the alarm, he alone escaped suspicion. The manly seriousness and natural modesty of his deportment really concealed, from common observers, the solid but not glittering qualities which they covered. His unaffected absence from court, which he knew how to colour so as to escape the imputation of disaffection, prevented his being thought or talked of: so that nobody pointed at him when the hatred against the tyrant became so general, and the wish to see him hurled from his throne so impatient, that men began to

inquire, who would be the successor? This by degrees became the usual topic of every private conversation, and the astrologers could not draw horoscopes enough to satisfy the guesses of the curious. Most wishes apparently centred on the old Nerva, one of the first Romans for rank and wealth, and who bore the rare character of an irreproachable man, neither envied nor hated. His great mildness and good-nature, which he seemed to have by inheritance, from his revered father and grandfather, were the qualities become valuable by contrast: and though his advanced years, and declining health, neither promised a long reign nor shoulders wholly equal to the burden, yet these very considerations favoured the immediate consent of his rivals to a claim which would terminate the fears, and not the hopes, of the seditious.

"Such was, in general, the state of things when, after my escape from the murderous claws of Domitian, I returned to Asia, and determined to give a specific direction to the determination of ridding the world of its oppressor.

"With this view I marshalled the little invisible army of which I was the conductor. It was found that the *cosmopolites*, over whom my influence chiefly extended, were about four hundred in number; and the *homiletic*, on whose fidelity and obedience I could safely rely, about as many thousands. They lived scattered, in greater or smaller clusters, throughout different provinces of the empire: many in Italy, Gaul, and Spain; the most at Rome itself. They were distributed, partly in civil offices, partly in the armies and prætorian guards; some in the very court and household of the emperor. When you consider that each of these individuals had his friends, connexions, and dependents, whom he could more or less influence, you will not think me deficient in means to have executed a more difficult enterprise than that which I was premeditating.

"My project was now confided to my most confidential friends (who formed a sort of select committee, and, as it were, a fourth grade in our order), and by them communicated, step by step, to the rest, who were to assist in its execution; as much of it at least as was necessary to be known. As I was too far from Rome myself immediately to conduct the enterprise, one of them was impowered to be my substitute; and I was satisfied with obtaining, as expeditiously as possible, accounts of what was going on. The tyrant was surrounded with invisible observers, from whom none of his steps, scarcely even of his thoughts, were hidden. An universal hollow-murmuring expectation of some great impending catastrophe brooded over the metropolis of the world, whose countless population, imperfectly pervaded by the hireling spies of the im-

perial court, was so well adapted to conceal secret conspiracies and combinations.

"Domitian himself dwelled in greater restlessness than ever: for an horoscope (it was reported) which he had taken in his youth, had announced, in the present year, the day, hour, and manner of his death. Nerva had the prudence, under pretext of nursing his feeble and declining health, to withdraw into the serener air of his villa, near Tarentum; and lived there so quietly, that the tyrant insensibly lost sight of him, although the true object of his retreat was not unperceived, and his secret adherency was continually increasing.

"Trajan, in the mean time, had been recommended to Domitian, through the instrumentality of a person set to work by my substitute, as a brave and trust-worthy officer, without ambition, and without claims: he obtained a command on the Lower Rhine against some restless tribes of the Germans. This was a great step to our ultimate end. The courage and prudence which he showed in the tranquillisation of this province, and the persevering zeal with which he re-accustomed to discipline the neglected and licentious legions, confirmed me in the opinion, that he alone was the man to save the sinking empire.

"But to have set him up as the rival of the respectable and universally beloved Nerva, to have canvassed the senate and prætorian guards for partisans, and thus to have drawn a notice which might have been fatal, would have been against all prudence. It was determined, therefore, in every thing, to make common cause with the friends of Nerva, and quietly to await the natural moment for bringing Trajan into play.

"Meanwhile the day was continually approaching which threatened the emperor with the prophesied danger; which he, by precautious measures, was hoping to avert. His uneasiness increased: not knowing whom to suspect, he mistrusted all. A great number of senators, among others Glabrio, and his near kinsman the harmless Flavius Clemens, were in a short time, and under trifling pretences, executed. There was now no hour to lose. Those who intended to realise the prophecy drew nearer together. A freed-man of the empress Domitia, who, at some of my lectures in Rome, had become one of my warm adherents, and who had been gained by my substitute to observe the emperor night and day closely, carried word to his mistress, that, on a list of persons intended for sacrifice, he had read her name; assuring her, that, if she chose to intrust her safety to him and his friends, the blow should be turned on another head. Domitia tacitly acquiesced; and that very hour Rome was freed from a ruler, whose life was a public calamity, and obtained, in

Nerva, a prince, who had no other fault than his bodily debility, and his sixty-five years.

"Whether those who had shown most activity in directing the public choice toward Nerva, did not find him weak and docile enough for their purposes; or whether, when the first tumult of joy at this happy revolution was over, men began to reflect that the good old man was unequal to his task, and that the Roman empire required of its ruler the shoulders of a Hercules; it soon became evident that our care to look him out a partner and assistant was nothing less than superfluous. Already, on the death of the tyrant, a disaffected party made its appearance in the prætorian guard, whose discontent, merely for want of a resolute chieftain, was impotent against the enthusiasm of the senate and the people. But this party was of a nature to continue glowing under the ashes, and even to become dangerous to public tranquillity, and to the person of an emperor, whom every body loved indeed, but nobody feared.

"I now thought it a pressing occasion to exert all means to support our plan by a weighty party in the senate, in the legions, and in the cohorts of the prætorian band; but especially to predispose the new emperor to concurrence. He, by endeavouring to collect about him the well-disposed and most respectable, had insensibly surrounded himself with my most confidential friends, who neglected no opportunity of drawing his attention to Trajan's great virtues and qualities; and of awakening in him the opinion that he could do nothing more useful to himself, and to the empire, than by selecting, for his co-regent and successor, the only man to whom he could with entire confidence intrust the public happiness, and the preservation of the Roman empire. Nerva did not appear disinclined; and yet he procrastinated, in consequence of a weakness from which few regents are free, until the somewhat restless præfect of the prætorium, Casperius Ælianus, by some steps dangerous to the imperial authority, rendered him so sensible of his own insufficiency, that, on a sudden—on one of the most fortunate days which ever rose on the human race—he solemnly adopted Marcus Ulpius Trajanus as his son and heir; and declared him, to the universal satisfaction of all ranks, his co-regent and successor.

"My last and most anxious wish was now fulfilled. If, as I doubt not, Trajan in the selection of his successor, and he again in appointing his, shall remain faithful to the example of the good Nerva, and transfer the sway to the most worthy, the world will have to rejoice in a golden age, such as history has not yet to record. I had co-operated for this end at a time when I could not know what would be the fruit of my labour; the business of my life was now accomplished; I bequeathed to the world—what every one in proportion to his powers owes

it—many a good tree which I had planted; many a good fruit, which under my culture had ripened; and I thought I had acquired a right to be dead to the world, and to pass the days I had yet to live with myself and for myself."

'Here Apollonius terminated his narrative, and now left me to my own reflexions. The sky, meantime, was become serene; the air was fresh and mild, and the sun scattered a thousand pleasing colours from the rain-drops, which still hung trembling on the leaves of the trees, or sparkling from the flower-cups. I enjoyed awhile the indescribable glory of nature's magic, by wandering with Kymon to some distance from the dwelling, thinking much, and talking occasionally of what had passed.'

* * *

Some of the critics of Wieland have blamed him for the transplantation of modern schemes and associations to the ancient world, and have considered these hypothetic solutions of an extraordinary event as improbable falsifications of history. For our parts, we feel convinced, that the men of yore were precisely the men of to-day; that it is the slang and the garb only, the *costume* of idea and pursuit, which changes; and that whatever characters and combinations are to be observed in our own age, may with probability be imputed to the ancient world in an analogous stage of culture. The consummate knowledge of the times described, which Wieland every where displays, is in nothing more remarkable, than in the dexterity with which he translates, into the dialect of antiquity, the maxims and institutions of modern literary sects. It is so that they would have appeared in those ages and places. And when it is considered how much enigma overhangs a revolution, too permanently beneficial to be the mere result of accident, it will not appear preposterous to ascribe it to the public will, systematically influenced by permanent associations. But a greater share in predisposing both the empire and the palace to the deposition of Domitian, and to the acceptation of his successors, ought probably rather to be assigned to the Christian sect, than to the Pythagoric. The church reckons Flavius Clemens and Domitilla among her martyrs; and Stephen, a freed-man of the latter, who principally effected the death of the tyrant, enjoyed too much of the favour, not to be suspected of having embraced the faith, of his mistress. Is there no ground for surmising that Apollonius himself was known, in the East, by the shorter name of Apollos? The biography of Philostratus is a legend, and by a heathen.

ART. XI.—*Weltgeschichte. Erster Theil.* Göttingen. *History of the World. Part the First. By John Godfrey Eichhorn.* 8vo.

PROFESSOR Eichhorn has distinguished himself by his Introduction to the Old Testament, a work of great industry, learning, and research, of great taste, sagacity, and originality. Since the slow completion of that weighty enterprise, which has recently attained a new edition, he has written an extensive Introduction to the History of modern European Culture, the first lines of Universal History, now before us; and a History of the last three hundred Years, in five volumes, which have not yet reached us. The celerity of composition, and profusion of reference, which distinguish these later productions, hardly seem to admit a personal and digested consultation of all his authorities. For this outline of primæval history, however, his scriptural studies were an adequate preparation.

It is stated in the preface that this work was in great forwardness ten years ago: that it had resulted from a perusal of the early historians, undertaken with a view to Jewish affairs: that the special matter had been used in its proper place, and the general matter, after being reduced to becoming proportions, deposited here: that it has formed a text-book, or syllabus of his lectures, for a long period; and has received, after every course, some improvement of arrangement, and some accession of authorities; and that it will be followed by an appendix of copious extracts, to be entitled *Bibliotheca historica Græca et Latina ad juvandum historiæ antiquæ studium*; the more specific references and proofs being reserved for that intended publication.

This work, therefore, may be considered as comprising the result of much thought and study; as containing the inferences of a mind accustomed to judge for itself; and which prizes so highly historic truth, as to have directed even its theological labours principally to the reduction of the Jewish scriptures to their historic value.

A characteristic chapter is certainly that which treats of the period from Adam to Noah; it consists of ten paragraphs, which we shall translate.

'1. The period from Adam to Noah, according to the Hebrew chronology, consists of 1656 years. But to this the Greek opposes 2262, and the Samaritan 1307 years. And although the Hebrew may be comparatively preferable, it cannot be assumed as historically correct. For it reposes on an undemonstrated extraordinary length of life of the primæval men, and on pedigrees which are full of chasms. It is, moreover, linked upon sagas, which are not wont to contain exact chronology.

'2. Documents, monuments, witnesses, historians drawing from pure sources, the early world has not to offer. Moses exhibits concerning it only sagas and philosophemas, which, to be sure, on account of their high simplicity and philosophic dignity, are utterly remarkable, but contain no pure history. The few fragments of Sanchoniatho, Berosus, and Manetho, are miserably scanty in historical matter; and, besides, are in great part of equivocal genuineness. Very little, therefore, can be related concerning the early world. From the analogy of the progressive civilisation of other rude tribes, which have not been interrupted in the natural steps of their progressive culture by any external influence, something may be inferred concerning it by philosophy.

'3. The antiquity of the human race, and that of the earth, as the petrifactions prove, is different; but the former is not susceptible of definite estimate. The six or seven thousand years, which our chronologers assign, are a misunderstanding of the interpreters and antiquaries, who believed that Moses had prefixed complete pedigrees of the ancestors of his nation, and that the successive Hebrew historians continued them in uninterrupted chronological series.

'4. It is more certain that the human race begins with a single pair, as the saga in Moses represents, as the historian of culture presumes, as the natural philosopher proves.

'5. The *patria* of man is Asia. This part of the world has, of all others, surfaces the most elevated; which after fire-revolutions would cool first, which after water-revolutions would dry first. From this region proceeded all the nations of the other parts of the world, whose origin we are able to investigate: from it are derived all the languages and alphabets, arts and sciences, that have been examined; from it the nobler animals and plants; from it commerce, and the inventions to facilitate it; in short, all human culture. But the part of Upper Asia, in which the first men dwelled, can with difficulty, and only hypothetically, be assigned; as even Moses defines the seat of Paradise only in conformity with an obscure saga, and his mythos is obviously mingled with poetic ideas. For the southern part of Asia, and indeed for India on this side the Ganges, the heavenly climate, the pure air, the fertile soil, the neighbourhood of high mountains for a refuge against inundation, and the very ancient traces of culture among its inhabitants, appear to decide. But several natural philosophers prefer the higher ridge of Asia, between the 40 and 55 degrees of latitude (a part of Siberia and independent Tartary) as the original dwelling-place of man; because being the highest district it was first habitable; is not exposed to deluges and volcanoes; is the *patria* of our domestic animals; and, from the number of rivers which it pours forth in all directions, agrees

with the Mosaic description of Paradise; and, besides, a notion prevailed among ancient nations that in the land of the Scythians (Justin ii. 1.) or Tartars, was the first home of mankind.

'6. Here lived an ignorant, innocent, and contented couple of men, distinguished from the brutes by nothing but an inherent force, by means of which, under the guidance and influence of nature, it was to become rational. Probably audible objects first awakened its attention, and attracted the listening being by degrees to consciousness, to observation, and to abstraction. Imitation taught it to repeat the sounds it had heard, and to preserve the remarked in its recollection. The imitated sounds suggested by their repetition the first idea of human language; the invention of which must have been one of the earliest evolutions of human capacity. The sensual brute-man now approached a rational being.

'7. But as on the one side men ascended, they descended on another. They learned new situations which they ambitioned; they stretched out their hands (as the beautiful mythos says) for the food of the immortals, and became mortal. Innocence, satisfaction, repose vanished; but men passed from a state of instinctive to a state of rational conduct. As the ignorant being became wise, so the slave of instinct became the denizen of reason.

'8. In their beautiful original dwelling-place the Adamites no doubt multiplied fast. As the neighbouring country began to overfill, they advanced in distinct lines; as may be inferred from those climatic differences in the human race, which are become indelible and hereditary marks of descent. We are unable, however, to indicate the lines of march, which cannot always have proceeded uninterruptedly, or the time of the first settlement of each district. During this progress the slow evolution of humanity went forwards and backwards, as depended on climate and food, length of life, and condensation of populousness, the arts of society, and the forms of government, and all that long list of favourable or unfavourable circumstances which no human understanding would venture wholly to enumerate.

'9. Already in the primæval world, according to the sagas which have descended to us, occur important inventions; as that of clothing, of fire, of smithy, of foundery, of language, of music, of architecture, and many arts of life. It had mythic sagas and poetry; religion and laws; distinct professions; and much else, no doubt, to which the Shemite sagas do not allude. But a highly cultivated original nation, which has handed down to us all our knowledge, arts, and sciences, such as Bailly would place in northern Asia in the forty-ninth degree of latitude, or De l'Isle on the highest summit of Caucasus, is an hypothesis

neither favoured by the Shemite sagas, nor by the histories of other nations.

'10. The first epocha of primæval history is Noah's flood, which, if it did not comprehend the whole inhabited earth, occasioned a great revolution in the condition of Asia; and, if it did not wholly extinguish all the culture of Asia, made it retrogressive in the regions overwhelmed. How defective, therefore, is the preserved account of the Noachian deluge! Instead of exhibiting to us the progressive improvement of the tribes which escaped it, we only hear of the recommencement of culture among the descendants of Noah.'

From this extract it will be perceived how closely professor Eichhorn has been followed by Dr. Geddes, in appreciating the documents of antediluvian history. Both consider the saga concerning Eden as mingled with mythic allegory; the early genealogies as full of chasms; the lives of the patriarchs as estimated by some obsolete mode of reckoning; and the deluge as a local, not an universal calamity. With such views, it would not appear unnatural to abridge the supposed interval between Adam and Noah; but Eichhorn plainly leans to a prolongation of the received period, and, instead of inclining to the Samaritan, flies off toward the Septuagint chronology. In the four hundred and nineteenth section of his introduction to the Old Testament, the professor has analysed the story of Noah, and thinks that it is put together out of two distinct accounts; in the one of which the incensed deity is termed Jehovah; in the other the superior beings offended are called Elohim, or the Lords; so that we possess two narrations of the event, which in some particulars corroborate, and in some correct each other.

The second subdivision comprises the period from Noah to Moses.

The third extends from Moses to Cyrus.

With this chapter, especially with the latter portions of the narrative, we are by no means satisfied. A peculiar system influences our opinion. We do not agree with Rollin, or with the authors of the Universal History, in their plan of conciliating the rival historians. It appears to us that Nebuchadrezzar was a designation of the kings of Babylon, worn by Cyrus, and communicated to Cambyses on his association to the empire: so that the Nabuchodonosor of Josephus, and his Cyrus, are one; and the Nebuchadrezzar of Jeremiah is one with the Cambyses of Herodotus. The designation, name, or title Nebuchadnezzar may be derived from the Persic *Nayb Khezra*, the nabob Chosroes, or from the Medic, *Nebu-cadne-tsar* Cœlodignus-Princeps.

These are new and important positions, wholly subversive of

the established order of narration; contradictory to the inferences of Josephus, whose learning had the command of much extinct comparative testimony; and unsupported by ancient suffrage, unless two obscure sentences in Eusebius and Syncellus be allowed to prove that some such system had found advocates in former times. We shall, however, hazard a few of the reasons for supposing it to be a true system.

First, be it observed, that all conquerors have two characters. Among the generals of their armies who share their booty; in the metropolis of the country which acquires dominion by their victories, they are naturally extolled for generosity and wisdom. Among the captives displaced by their violence, among the cities plundered by their rapacity, they are naturally reviled for tyranny and cruelty. The Nebuchadrezzar who desolates Judea, and is there a scourge of God, may be the hero of Babylon, and there the right hand of the Almighty. The same prince may order the siege of a rebellious city, who would recolonise it with the loyal portion of its ancient inhabitants: he may be abhorred by the victims of his first severity, and applauded by the clients of his subsequent patronage. Greek writers may have copied the metropolitan flatterers, and Hebrew writers have preserved the lamentations of provincial suffering.

On the authority of Josephus especially reposes the prevailing sentiment, that Nebuchadnezzar flourished about seventy years before Cyrus. Josephus deserves great weight. He is one of the best of historians. The account of his own times is, for impartiality, for detail, for information, for research, very justly commended: it has been too little studied, and too little trusted, both by the theologian and by the philosopher. As far back as the conquest of Alexander, he has supplied trustworthy, interesting, and elsewhere inaccessible instruction. It is not without patient inquiry and comparison that an historical critic may be allowed to question the authority of Josephus.

According to his narrative (Antiq. x. 6.), Nebuchadnezzar took the government over the Babylonians in the fourth year of Jehoiakim king of the Jews; and immediately determined on an expedition against Necho king of Egypt, under whom Syria then was.

This attack was not wholly unprovoked; for, in the time of Manasseh, Palestine had become a satrapy, dependent on Babylon, but had been conquered in the time of Josiah by the Egyptians, and rendered tributary to Memphis. The Egyptians were favoured by the idolaters of Jerusalem; the Chaldeans kept up a secret understanding with certain priests of the monotheists, especially with the family of Hilkiah, which eventually superseded the established dynasty.

The sovereign of Babylon, continues Josephus, passed the Euphrates at Carchemish, took all Syria as far as Pelusium, and

a little time afterwards made an expedition against Jehoiakim, who received him into Jerusalem. This king was unexpectedly deposed and butchered; his son intrusted with the sovereignty; and captives, or hostages, among whom was Ezekiel, were transported to Babylon. The successor of Jehoiakim was supposed to harbour vindictive feelings; was in his turn deposed, and supplanted by his kinsman Zedekiah, a grandson of Jeremiah. Finally, Zedekiah was accused of revolting to the Egyptians, and a second investment or siege of Jerusalem took place; during which the people suffered every extremity for eighteen months, and at length surrendered.

The assassination of Holofernes by Judith seems to have delayed the approach, and embittered the vengeance, of this army; for it is placed (Judith ii. 1.) in the eighteenth, and the capture of Jerusalem in the nineteenth, year of Nabuchodonosor.

The Babylonian monarch, adds Josephus, abode at Riblah, while his generals took the town. The temple was burnt by Nebuzaradan, and the city razed: Zedekiah was captured alive, blinded, and imprisoned until his decease at Babylon; whither the vessels of the temple, and the saleable inhabitants, were removed. The young kinsmen of Zedekiah were brought up in the schools of the Chaldeans; among whom Daniel and Azarias acquired great distinction. Arioch, of Ulam or Elam, was their protector. The high-priest Josadok was released from his bonds. Thus far all is probable.

We are next told by Josephus, that after a reign of forty-three years Nebuchadnezzar died; that he was succeeded by Evil-merodach, who reigned eighteen years; then by Niglissor, who reigned forty years; then by Labosordacus, who reigned nine months; and then by Baltasar. Against him (says Josephus Ant. x. ii.) Cyrus, king of Persia, and Darius, king of Media, made war; and he had reigned seventeen years when they took Babylon. This Darius, king of Media, is stated to have patronised Daniel, and to have made the bard one of his three principal prefects.

Cyrus is next described as restoring to the Jews the vessels plundered from their temple, and as publishing an edict to favour the recolonisation of Jerusalem. This edict Cambyses is made to interrupt (Ant. xi. 2.), during his campaigns against Egypt: at length Darius accedes, and Zorobabel is allowed to carry it into execution.

This second narrative of Josephus carries contradiction on its face. If Nebuchadnezzar began to reign in the fourth of Jehoiakim, captured Ezekiel in the eighth of the same prince, and in the ninth of Zedekiah, or nineteenth of his own reign, removed Ezra and Daniel to Babylon, they must have been, in his last or forty-third year, twenty-four years older than at the time of their captivity, and consequently between thirty and

forty. Now, if the eighteen years of Evil-merodach, the forty years of Niglissor, and the seventeen years of Baltasar are to be inserted before the accession of Cyrus, these captives must have been above a hundred years old when Cyrus began to reign. Yet they are stated by Josephus to flourish and govern under his successor Darius, whose accession is placed by Herodotus, twenty-nine years later than that of Cyrus. This is absolutely impossible. Here are at least seventy-five, if not one hundred and four, superfluous years.

Josephus places the rebuilding of the temple, by Joshua the son of Josadok, in the ninth year of Darius (Ant. xi. 4.); although the father was one of the captives, and released, no doubt at the instigation of Jeremiah, from his bonds. Here again are seventy-five superfluous years, if any probability of age is to be observed.

The Egyptian chronology, too, is inconsistent with the reckoning of Josephus. Jeremiah (xliv. 30.) mentions the death of Hophra, or Apries, as subsequent but nearly contiguous to the capture of Zedekiah. To Hophra succeeded Psammenitus, who reigned a few months by the aid of Hophra's party; but he also was seized and put to death by the friends of Amasis, whose original usurpation was supported by Cyrus, and long preceded the death of Hophra. During the siege of Pelusium by Cambyses, Amasis died; having reigned, according to Herodotus (iii. 10.), forty-four years; of which the greater half probably were cotemporary with the destitution, or nominal sovereignty at Sais, of Hophra.

Shortly after the siege of Pelusium, Cambyses, who survived Cyrus, died a violent death (Thalia lxiv.), not unlike an assassination. It follows, that within forty-four years, if Amasis reigned so long alone, and perhaps within twenty-four years, of the captivity of Zedekiah, which was coeval with the death of Hophra, the reigns of Cyrus and Cambyses were both terminated.

Besides, if Palestine was overrun by the armies of one Babylonian emperor, and taken at the close of Hophra's reign from the Egyptians, there could be no need for Cambyses to reconquer it, for the Babylonians, from Hophra's successor. The siege against Zedekiah having decided the submission of Jerusalem to Babylon, there was no subsequent revolt for Cambyses to quell. Two successive sovereigns of Babylon could not both have to undertake the conquest of Syria, and the invasion of Egypt, when no interruption of allegiance had intervened.

We must therefore infer a duplicity of narrative in Josephus. He first relates the campaigns of Nabuchodonosor, a son and associate of Cyrus in the empire, according to those Syrian writers who abhorred him. He next relates the proper history of the reign of Cyrus, according to those Greek writers who

admired him. He does not perceive that those campaigns ought to have formed a mere episode of this reign.

With such a pre-conception, the narrative of Herodotus, and the paramount authority of the Jewish scriptures, will be found every where to correspond. Ezra, for instance, represents Cyrus (i. 8.) as ordering a restoration to the temple of those vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought home; and of which Baruch (i. 2.) dates the restoration in the fifth year from the siege: so that Cyrus retained an over-awing authority over the captor of Jerusalem, exactly compatible with his known relation to Cambyses. But this is not the place for substituting a critical narrative of these events for that adopted by professor Eichhorn. Let it, for the present, suffice to have shown that the relation of Josephus must be dismissed for its internal contradictions and gross inconsistency; and that it would have become this learned and sagacious investigator of Jewish antiquities, to have laid the ground-work of a new, exact, and lucid plan of narrative.

# *RETROSPECT*

OF

# FOREIGN LITERATURE.

## FRANCE.

ART. 12.—*Annales de Statistique Françoise & Etrangere, &c.*

*Annals of French and Foreign Statistics, a Work particularly designed to offer a real and annual Picture of each European Power, with respect to Extent; Division of Territory; Population; Natural Productions; the State of Science, Arts and Literature; Industry; Commerce and its Means; external and internal Navigation; Revenues; Land and Sea Forces. By Lorio Ballors.* 8vo. Paris.

WE have transcribed the title at length, to convey more fully the author's object. We have long observed this work in silence, uncertain how to speak of it. Errors from haste and inattention are numerous; but, on the other hand, much genuine and valuable information is every where scattered. We cannot separate the wheat from the tares, and shall therefore content ourselves with observing, that the second year is commenced with the delivery of the fourteenth and fifteenth numbers. From the uncertainty of the arrivals from France, we have seen none of the later ones. In the miscellaneous contents of these, however, we find nothing particularly interesting.

ART. 13.—*Relation d'un Voyage fait dans le Departement de l'Orne, &c.*

*Account of a Journey into the Department of Orne, to ascertain the Reality of a Meteor observed at l'Aigle, in that Department.* 4to. Paris.

This essay was read to the Institute, and has since been printed in a quarto pamphlet. The stones that fell in this instance were numerous, preceded by explosions resembling discharges of cannon, with less and more continued sounds like those of musquetry or drums. The sky was clear, except a few light passing clouds. The stones themselves ap-

peared to fall from a rectangular cloud, whose longest sides were to the east and west. This cloud, which was at a great height, seemed to divide at each explosion; and the country over which they fell comprised an elliptical space about two leagues and a half long, by about one broad. Its greatest dimension was north-east and south-west, by a declination of about 22°, which is exactly in the magnetic meridian of Aigle. The stones that fell of different sizes were estimated at two or three thousand, from seventeen pounds and a half to eight grammes.

On analysis, these stones resembled the others that have been observed to fall from the clouds, except that the magnesia was not in so large a proportion, and the iron in a larger. A great part of this pamphlet is filled with the evidences of the fact.

ART. 14.—*Code Pharmaceutique, &c.*

*A Pharmaceutical Code for the Use of the Civil Hospitals, published by Order of the Minister of the Interior, compiled by M. Parmentier. A new Edition*, 8vo. Paris.

We expected a better work from Parmentier; for this dispensatory is not greatly, if at all, superior to the numerous pharmaceutical publications with which we are surrounded. The divisions are the usual ones. The list of the materia medica precedes; the officinal medicines follow; and what the French style the magistral form the third class. The materia medica is confined to those adapted for hospitals, but its contents are still too numerous. In the second class, M. Parmentier has introduced his reforms with a hesitating, sparing hand. Many of the old complicated formulæ remain; and he remarks that, as the medicine, in its former state, is found to have certain definite effects, he has been unwilling to change it, lest the reformed formula should disappoint the practitioner. In some of the officinals, however, he has been less cautious; and the medicinal wines are greatly simplified, and the preparation more carefully detailed. The great value of this Pharmacopœia, and what distinguishes it from every other, is the introduction to each class of medicines, in which the author explains the general rules which ought to influence the various preparations.

ART. 15.—*Recherches Medico-Chimiques, &c.*

*Medico Chymical Enquiries into the Virtues and Principles of Cantharides. By H. Beaupoil.* 8vo. Paris.

Our author has stepped, in this enquiry, beyond his predecessor Thouvenel, whose experiments we noticed in our

account of the Annals of Chymistry, but has still left much for his followers. We cannot analyse his work minutely, but shall mention some of the more important observations, referring for explanations to the article just mentioned. He seems, in all his experiments, to have found more distinct traces of acidity than his predecessors; and this acid is not, he thinks, the acetous, but more nearly allied to the phosphoric: its nature, however, is not very accurately ascertained.

The cantharides, without any preparation, seem to produce considerably stimulating effects on the stomach and intestines; but the watery solution, even in a less dose than the substance, seemed to affect most powerfully the urinary and genital systems. The green and yellow substances produced no deleterious effects internally, but externally acted as vesicatories. The black matter and the extractive acted also very powerfully on the surface; and the latter seemed most to affect the urinary organs in a very considerable degree.

ART. 16.—*Dictionnaire Raisonnée de Pharmacie, &c.*

*A descriptive Dictionary of Chemical Pharmacy, Theoretical and Practical. By J. B. Rivet. 2 vols. 8vo.* Paris.

We chiefly mention this work to recommend a translation; or, if possible, some more perfect pharmaceutical system, for the present has some defects and a few errors. The first part contains remarks on the three kingdoms of nature, with directions for distinguishing, collecting, drying, and preserving vegetables.

The second part treats of the animal kingdom, the manner of preparing and preserving animals, or the parts chiefly employed; the kind of death which will occasion the least alteration; the manner of preserving the fat, and the difference between the fats of different animals.

In the third part he treats of minerals, and classes them according to their tendency to unite with oxygen, adding the change of the properties arising from the union.

He next considers mineral waters, noticing their variety in different seasons, and the effects of each season on their properties. Of the preparation of medicines he treats at great length, and often with precision; but his directions are occasionally vague, and his commendations sometimes extravagant.

ART. 17.—*Dictionnaire de Chymie.*

*Dictionary of Chymistry, containing the Theory and Practice of this Science, its Application to Natural History and the Arts. By Louis Cadet. 4 Vols. 8vo.*

We mention this work for the reason that led us to notice the Dictionary of Pharmacy; viz. the want of a system in the form, which should embrace every part of this science. We have a good Chymical Dictionary in English, viz. Mr. Nicholson's, but the language and the theory are now obsolete. We sincerely wish that the author would revise it. We have not been able to examine M. Cadet's work minutely; but, from the general history of chymistry, and the few articles we have looked at, we think it extremely well executed.

ART. 18.—*Analyse des Eaux Thermales d'Aix en Savoie, &c.*

*Analysis of the Waters of the Warm Springs at Aix in Savoy, &c. By J. M. Socquet. 8vo.* Chambery.

We cannot follow this laboured analysis very closely. The springs rise through the clefts of a calcareous rock; and one is termed the sulphureous, the other the aluminous spring. The former contains, in 112 pounds, about eight grains of sulphur, dissolved in hydrogenous gas; and twenty-two grains of uncombined carbonic acid; of sulphat and carbonat of lime 180 grains; of sulphat, muriat, and carbonat of magnesia 119 grains; of sulphat of soda 33 grains, of muriat of soda nine grains. The solid contents are consequently inconsiderable; and the water owes its chief virtues to the sulphur.

The springs denominated aluminous contain no aluminous earth; the calcareous and magnesian salts are in the largest proportion; the neutral in a smaller. The sulphur yields here less than half the quantity that the other spring affords; and the free carbonic acid is by no means copious. The author dwells on the fact, that the sum of the magnesian and neutral salts is superior to the calcareous; they are so unquestionably, but in a degree so inconsiderable, that, if the latter be injurious, the former can scarcely compensate for the injury.

ART. 19.—*Traité Elementaire sur le Fluide, &c.*

*Elementary Treatise on the Electro-Galvanic Fluid. By J. A. De Luc. 2 vols. 8vo.* Paris.

We have styled M. de Luc a wordy author: indeed his ideas are not always carefully winnowed from chaff. In his

work we find what new information it affords sparingly scattered, but he concludes that the fluid of the Galvanic pile is the electrical.

ART. 20.—*Histoire des Vegetaux, &c.*

*History of the Vegetables of the Isles of France, of Reunion (Bourbon). By A. Thomas.* Paris.

We have seen only the first number of this work: and of this we cannot speak highly. The future numbers may, perhaps, be more interesting: the present contains ten plates. The author's object is to describe the new, and delineate the figures of plants which either form new genera, or render the genera of ancient authors more perfect.

## ITALY.

ART. 21.—*Vita Pii sexti Pontificis, &c.*

*The Life of Pope Pius VI. By J. B. Ferrari. 4to.* Padua.

The author of the Life of Pius VI. has already published the lives of Clement XIII. and XIV., as well as those of the celebrated *literati* of the university of Padua. All these works are intended as a continuation of Sandini's Lives of the Roman Pontiffs. In conformity to the plan of Sandini, our author speaks only of the principal and characteristic traits of Pius, omitting all the more minute and inconsiderable circumstances. The account of the distresses and vexations which he experienced in his journey to France, as well of his death, is written in the best style of ancient Rome, and excites the deepest commiseration for the fate of the venerable pontiff.

ART. 22.—*Ragguaglio della Vaccina in Friuli.*

*A Collection on the Vaccina in Friuli, in the Year* 1801. *8vo.* Udina.

The singularity of some of the contents of this collection has induced us to pay it a slight share of attention, amidst a crowd of pretenders to our notice. The author, Dr. Pegrani, attempts to oppose the prejudices which have impeded the progress of vaccination in his country. For this purpose he details the history of *vaccina*, from De Carro, and in the Friuli treats of the *vaccina* and its symptoms; the time of inserting the virus, as well as the false or spurious *vaccina*, of which he describes *four species*. He enlarges also on the affinity of the true *vaccina* with small-pox. A list of those who have been vaccinated in the Friuli is subjoined.

In another dissertation the experience of Dr. Mazzaroli in Udina is added, and in several instances variolous inoculation was afterwards employed, with the usual consequences. A letter of Dr. Demetrio Neranzi is added, on the same subject,

particularly directed against a memoir read by Dr. Caldani to the academy at Padua, in which he enlarged on the injurious effects of vaccination in the Friuli. These he shows had no existence, or were greatly exaggerated. The volume concludes with a series of cases, in which this practice was also employed with success, by Dr. Miotti, at Udina.

ART. 23.—*Ricordi diell Anatomia, Chirurgice, &c.*

*Records Anatomical and Chirurgical respecting the Head and Neck. Collected by Vincenzo Malacerne.* 2 *vols.* 8*vo.* Padua.

We notice this work, more on account of the celebrity of the author than its real merits. His Treatise on Surgical Operations, and Records of Traumatic Surgery, have been well received; and as the copies are now scarce, he has supplied them by the present publication.

He begins with showing the necessity of uniting anatomy and surgery, and the advantages of a good manual of chirurgical diseases. In the first section of the first volume, he treats of the external parts of the head in an anatomical and surgical view. The internal parts are the subject of the second section. The second volume is employed in considering the parts of the neck in the same order, and with the same views; and this volume is concluded with a Memoir on Criticism.

ART. 24.—*Viaggio de Milano a tre Laghi, &c.*

*A Journey from Milan to the three Lakes,* viz. *Lake Major, Lugeno, and Como, and in the surrounding Mountains. By C. Amoretti, Librarian of the Embrosian Library at Milan.* 8*vo.* Milan.

Signior Amoretti published, in 1794, his first Journey to the Lakes; but, having repeated his visit, he found that so many interesting facts had escaped him on the first view, that he determined on again examining and improving his former journey, to which he has now added three maps. He divides his tour into twenty-two days, or twenty-eight chapters, in which he reviews all the remarkable objects that he met, and which are equally interesting to the philosopher, the antiquary, the soldier, the chymist, the mathematician, and the historian. He likewise describes the rivers, the lakes, and the caverns, which he visited, as well as the different meteorological productions, animals peculiar to the country, the customs and manners of its inhabitants, &c.

The elevation of the mountains, and of the principal spots in Lombardy, is ascertained from the observations of the

astronomer Oriani. The last chapter is particularly interesting, from the observations which the author has collected on the subterraneous electrometry of Lombardy, and of the famous Pennet, who, from the report of Thouvenel, possesses the singular faculty of discovering, by the smell, minerals under ground. He relates what Thouvenel, Foster, Spallanzani, Gezola, Stella, Borbieri, &c., have written on this singular faculty, with some observations on another person equally acute in such distinctions.

One of the maps is a topographical one of the higher Novarese, and the other of the Valteline. The third is illustrative of the Voyage to the Lakes. This work well merits a translation.

ART. 25.—*Bibliothèque Italienne, &c.*

*Italian Library; or a Picture of the Progress of the Arts and Sciences in Italy. By MM. Julio, Grobert, Vassalli Eandi, and Rossi.* 8vo. Turin. *(Continued from our last Appendix, page* 579*).*

The second number, to which we now return, contains some valuable and important articles. The first is an Abstract of some Experiments on Wheat affected with the Ergot, a disease in the grain, which renders it highly deleterious. By M. Bonvoisin. The effects of this wheat are to produce what is called a dry gangrene, *viz.* a mortification without inflammation. When ergoted wheat was mixed with water, a putrid fermentation came on in twenty-four hours: the liquor was frothy, gave a green colour to syrup of violets, and exhaled an insupportable stench. Eight days afterwards it became inodorous, had a faint taste, and did not change the colour of the syrup. Dispelled, it gave out carbonat of ammonia, empyreumatic oil, and hydrogenous carbonated gas. A coal, reduced with difficulty to a cinder, remained. Alcohol dissolved a part of it, which was consequently supposed to be resinous; but M. Bonvoisin considers it rather as a true soap, composed of potash and oil, soluble in water. Ergoted wheat was mixed with the flesh of veal, and, as a standard, an equal quantity was added to water. The former became putrid in ten hours, and, at the end of forty-eight hours, the nature of the flesh was wholly destroyed: the latter showed no marks of putrescency till the end of forty-eight hours. Oatmeal, with this seed, became an alkaline, instead of an acid, fluid; and vinegar with it, in three days, lost all acidity. With bark it was preserved in water without corruption. In water, acidulated with the sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic, acid, it re-

mained from eight to ten days without corruption. Our author's conclusion is singular, that the disease resembles cancerous complaints in animals.

The second article is, an Abstract of some Galvanic Experiments on Animals. By M. Rossi. Our author concludes, that the voltaic pile produces stronger contractions than any other stimulant; that the arteries first lose their excitability, then the intestines, and lastly the heart; that the voluntary muscles preserve it longest; that the right auricle continues longer irritable than the left, which he thinks is with difficulty reconciled to the opinion, that oxygen is the principle of irritability, and that carbon destroys it; and, lastly, that the vitality of an insulated part is more quickly destroyed.

On the stimulating Power of Camphor in Vegetation.—Mr. Smyth thought camphor a stimulant; but the author, M. Julio, suspects that he was mistaken, and that the drops of water in the flowers of the tulip-tree were the result of the natural perspiration of the plant.

On the Velocity of the Galvanic Fluid. By M. Vassalli Eandi. This author found, that the fluid of a pile of twenty-five pair passed through thirteen metres of gold wire in a second. On another occasion, in a *copper wire covered with silver*, the fluid passed through three hundred and fifty-four metres in an instant, and the shock was at least thrice as strong as when the two extremities of the pile were touched without any intermede.

On the Boracic Acid and the different Borats found in the Lakes of Volterrano and the Environs of Siena. By M. Mascagni.—This article contains a description of the lakes, an analysis of their springs, an examination of the sediments which contain the boracic acid, and the methods of preparing the borax.

## GERMANY.

ART. 26.—*Analecten neur Beobachlungen, &c.*

*A Collection of New Observations and Inquiries in Natural Science. By Dr. J. G. Steinbuch.* 8vo. Furth.

We cannot dispute the author's title: the observations are *new*, but not very interesting; and the diffuse declamatory style reminds us of the two grains of wheat in the bushel of chaff. We can give our readers a good idea of this very trifling performance, by transcribing the titles of the Observations.—1. On the Copulation of the Gadus Lota. —2. Observations on the State of a Nymph, and the Respira-

tion of the young Lizards in the Marshes.—3. On the Faculty of the Polypus Panacus of rendering the surrounding Water turbid.—4. On the Vibrio Agrostis. Some observations on the revivification of animals, dried for six months, are added; with an account of another vibrio. The fourth description is not new.

ART. 27.—*Gendris der Pharmacie, &c.*

*Elements of Pharmacy, with respect to Chemical Pharmacy. By E. F. Bucholz.* 8vo. Erfurth.

These elements are a kind of manual, or rather a vademecum to those who cannot obtain the new chemical works. It appears comprehensive in its plan; but, on dipping into different parts, we found it, on the whole, so trifling and superficial, that we shall not even enlarge on its contents.

ART. 28.—*Einlectung in die Geschichte der Mineralogie.*

*An Introduction to the History of Mineralogy. By J. F. H. Schwabe.* 8vo. Jena.

The author attempts to ascertain some fixed points, from which the student may survey the science of mineralogy; and, for this purpose, examines the three following questions: 1. What is mineralogy in the different acceptations of the word; and in what sense must we view it in this place? —2. Is mineralogy a science? It is, he remarks, like every other science, a collection of facts founded on rational and experimental principles: its history is consequently the history of its systems.—3. How ought its history to be written? It is answered in a chronological order; and a chronological history is subjoined. However trifling this may appear, much that is styled science in Germany merits no better character.

ART. 29.—*Alt und Neue Zeit Oder.*

*Ancient and Modern Times; or Considerations on Innovations in Medicine: on Quackery, and an Apology for the Ancients to assist the Practice of Medicine, Surgery, and Midwifery. By Dr. L. Vogel. Vol. I.* 8vo. Erfurth.

After a careful perusal of this work, we can scarcely determine whether the author is ludicrous and ironical, or serious. He certainly mixes *seria ludo*, and conveys often useful information under the mask of pleasantry. As we cannot enlarge on the work, we may copy the titles of some of his chapters. We first find a scientific view of medicine in the sixteenth century, whose founder is said to be Theophrastus of Hohenheim, improperly confounded with many quacks of

different eras. We next find Charon, a dialogue of the dead from the time when experiments began to be made on the sulphuric and muriatic acids in the cure of diseases: 2. A chorus of the partisans of *human*, against those of *animal*, inoculation: 3. Alexis of Piedmont, or the merchant of Arcanes, corrected and punished, a satyrical tale: 4. On the after-birth: 5. On the birth of an infant with the head and breast at the same time, with a rapid cure of a furunculus by the essence of galbanum; collections from the works of Theophrastus and Paracelsus; cases, anecdotes, &c. &c.

ART. 30.—*H. C. Reich de Febre Ejus, &c.*

*H. C. Reich's Treatise on Fever and its Treatment in general, Translated into Latin by Th. F. Koetrenter.* 8vo. Carlsruhe.

Reich has fallen unto disrepute in this country by his recommendation of the muriatic acid as a specific in fevers, a remedy bought at a considerable expence by the king of Prussia. We mention this work, to show that in Germany he is still considered as a practitioner of credit; and to add, that the translator has four excellent memoirs. 1. On the Vital Power.—2. Some Cases of Practical Medicine.—3. On Delirium and Mania.—4. On the Epidemic Putrid Fever.

Art. 31.—*Beitrage Zur Geschichte der Erfindangen.*

*Memoirs subservient to the History of the Discovery of Inventions. By J. Bæhman. Vol. V. first Number.* 8vo. Leipsic.

We had given a short account of the fourth volume of this interesting work, which was accidentally mislaid, and we have no longer the book in our possession. The three first volumes have been translated, and their character is well known: the fourth is not less interesting, and this part of the fifth, though perhaps not equally important, merits our attention. It relates to pelisses or furred cloaks; steel; the manner of constructing mines; and kitchen plants.

In the history of kitchen plants, prefixed to the last memoir, the author mentions the plants formerly cultivated, and now neglected. He enlarges on borrage and spinage, which came seemingly from Spain, since the ancient botanists speak of this country as their native soil. Broccoli was brought from Italy at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century; the colliflowers were brought from the Levant to Italy, and thence to Germany. Dioscorides seems to have been acquainted with our carrots under the name of stephylinos. In one of the following paragraphs, our author speaks of the impressions of plants, an

art known and practised by Th. Kentman, and the botanist Paul Germann, in 1583.

On the art of dress, the author offers the following reflexions:

'When, by the successive increase of population, mankind migrated to either pole, and inhabited less genial climates, they covered themselves with the skins of animals, without any preparation, wearing the hair next their bodies. The artificial preparation of wool, already known to the Egyptians, was probably practised by the Athenians. Many centuries afterwards, African sheep, which have hair only, and no wool, were transplanted to the regions of the north. The Greeks, the Romans, and the Hebrews, wore no furred cloaks. Their use was introduced from the north, where they were worn in the second and third centuries of the Christian era.'

The author next speaks of the commerce of furs, of its different kinds, and the prohibitions, which were the consequence of too great indulgence in these luxuries.

Steel was known in the time of Homer, under the name of chalybs. The most ancient method of preparing it is found in Aristotle *(auscultet mirab.)* The best kind of steel, our author thinks, is the wootz, the *ferrum indicum*. Dr. Pearson has proved this to be a very perfect steel, in a very excellent essay on it in the Philosophical Transactions.

The ancients were acquainted with the art of exploring and working mines; but their methods were expensive and inconvenient. They employed mortars and hand-mills. The present methods were invented in Germany, in the early part of the sixteenth century.

ART. 32.—*Geschichte des Oriets.*

*The Ancient and Modern History of the East, particularly of Palestine. By A. Brehme.* 3 *Vols.* 8vo. Gotha.

The object of this work is to explain various passages in the Bible relative to the geography and natural history of the East and of Judæa. The work commences with an introduction on the religion of the Orientals, their moral and political character. The first chapter, divided into six sections, treats of the physical constitution of Palestine. The second chapter relates to its natural history. The first section of this chapter is on the domestic animals mentioned in the Holy Scriptures.—The author should have said the native animals of the East, since crocodiles, jackalls, &c. which he speaks of, have never been domesticated.—In the second

section, he treats of the plants: in the third, of the metals and minerals of Palestine.

The third, fourth, and fifth chapters form a part of the second volume. In the third, the author examines the religion and the religious ceremonies of the Jews; in the fourth, the progress of the Orientals in science and art; and, in the fifth, their domestic establishments,—*viz.* their habitations; their mode of living under tents; their houses, and the manner of constructing them; the culture of the earth; the rearing of cattle, and the cultivation of the vine.

In the third volume are the sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth chapters, which treats of the dress, and aliments of the eastern nations; their riches; their mode of travelling; and their literature. The last subject is treated inaccurately and confusedly. Some of the best works are omitted, and the chronological order is in general neglected.

ART. 33.—*Wirkliche reise unter Die Franzosen, &c.*

*Travels through France and the former German Countries to Paris, Italy, and Holland. By John Peter Lombard.* 8*vo.* Leipsic.

We notice this work not only as an imitation of Sterne, but to show that French arrogance, oppression, and cruelty, are still spoken of in Germany in the proper language.

ART. 34.—*Sophoclis Trachiniæ, &c.*

*The Trachiniæ of Sophocles, edited by C. G. A. Erfurt.* 8*vo.* Leipsic.

This excellent edition is chiefly valuable for the accuracy of the text, which, in the Trachiniæ, has been hitherto unusually corrupt. No commentary is annexed, but a variety of philosophical and critical remarks on some of the more difficult passages are subjoined. In the margin are found the various readings of the editions of Canter, Brunck, Aldini, Brubach, and Turnebus. The Greek scholia, from the Roman edition of 1518, follow the text, with the observations of the author and his predecessors: those of Reiske and Brunck are preserved entire, but those of Wakefield are abridged. The work is terminated by a full index *rerum et verborum*, by one of the passages quoted by Suidas, and another of the passages corrected and commented on.

ART. 35.—*Nekrolog auf das Jahr* 1798.

*Necrology for* 1798. *Vol. IX. By J. F. Schlichtegroll.* 8vo. Gotha.

The remarkable deaths which happen in a given year, especially in the literary world, continue to be recorded in this necrologic almanac with extensive and convenient biographic notices. An interval of four or five years may be requisite to collect and translate distant intelligence; yet something of completeness ought to be sacrificed to celerity. One has forgotten to miss the eminent who are laid low, one has ceased to grieve for the useful who are no more, before the sketch is executed of what they were, and a trophy of their services sculptured for the monumental decoration.

In its present form, this annual register of distinguished mortality is of more use to writers than to readers: it may supply the biographical dictionaries with materials; but it seldom contains above a life or two which one has not already seen in some other more expeditious source of intelligence. It seldom criticises conduct with courage: none of the admitted are sentenced to reprobation: the author seems a disciple of Winchester, determined universally to imparadise his dead: they are all citizens of a new Jerusalem, animated by talent, and clad with virtue.

The volume before us, we are sorry to say, is unusually interesting: it narrates many important losses. For instance, (1) David Ruhnken, or Ruhnkenius, born in 1723, at Stolpe, in Pomerania, and dead at Leyden, where he was professor. (2) Karl Wilhelm Ramler, the lyric poet, born at Kolberg in 1725, and dead at Berlin, where a new edition of his works, with a prefixed biography, has appeared. (3) Joseph Hilarius Eckhel, the director and celebrated commentator of the imperial cabinet of medals. (4) John Reinhold Forster, who made and recorded the instructive voyage with Cook and Banks. (5) John Jacob Rabe, who translated the Mishnah, &c.

We recommend to the manufacturers of our various magazines regularly to *abridge* many of these expanded notices, which would scatter some knowledge of the Germans eminent in literature. Such information ought to be rendered easily accessible, without being worth publishing apart. But the rage for indiscriminate detail ought not to be indulged. Biography is valued to excess, and is commonly treated much too diffusely, and without a view to its end and aim. In the life of a man of letters, what signifies but the dates and titles of his books? Yet these are often neglected for the year of his birth, or his marriage, or his burial; as if the phenomena, common to him and to the rest of mankind, were those of the principal or greater

importance. Few lives are so circumstanced, or can be so given, as to be useful as lessons of experience: for what, then, are they to serve? L'Avocat asked himself this question, and drew up his lives accordingly: but Bayle did not, and, like some other moderns who possess his fluency without his flavour, considered life but as a shelf to heap prose upon. We recommend to some of this author's assistants a habit of severer abbreviation, especially on minor occasions. To be sure it is easier to record than to think: it employs the living to weave shrouds for the dead; but is it not pampering a lazy, stupefying taste, and betraying the care of intellectual souls, to busy readers without exerting their intellect, by loading their memories with petty rubbish? Is it not at once to suckle fools, and chronicle small beer?

## HUNGARY.

ART. 36.—*Introductio in rem Diplomaticam, &c.*

*Introduction to the Diplomatic Transactions, principally Hungarian, of the Middle Age. By M. Schwandtner.* 8vo.

This, though styled a second edition, is in reality a new work; as, independent of the numerous and important additions which have been made to it, the whole has been newly arranged. During the last fourteen years there have been few works on the history of diplomacy on the continent, except those of Gatterer and Schænemann, and none in this kingdom. But the author has consulted a large collection of documents made by the Jesuits, Hevenesi and Caprinæ, and the Elucidations of the History of Hungary, published since the year 1790, the date of his first edition; so that the present work must be highly useful to the future historian.

ART. 37.—*Statistica Regni Hungariæ, &c.*

*Statistics of the Kingdom of Hungary and the Countries annexed. By M. Horvath.* Presburg.

The first edition of the work noticed above has contributed greatly to the present improved state of the Hungarian statistics. The author, too, has consulted the works of Ackenwall, Novotini, and Grellman. The whole is, however, still imperfect. We perceive no reference to unpublished works; and the author seems to have strangely overlooked the statistics of Croatia, Dalmatia, and Sclavonia, by M. Engel. In every part the dignity and importance of the clergy are greatly magnified. We find, however, that the inquisition was never established in Hungary, and that public instruction is very carefully conducted.

ART. 38.—*Lælius Vagis, &c.*

*Lælius; or, On Friendship. By M. T. Cicero. Translated into the Hungarian Language by Benedict Virag.* 8vo. Pest.

The Hungarian language already possesses an excellent translation of the Offices, by M. Kovaszkai; and this merits our attention, as adding to the Hungarian stock of literature; while it leads us to lament, that we possess few parts of this author in our own language. Those treatises which have been translated into English are little known.

ART. 39.—*Notitia Hungaricæ, &c.*

*Dissertations on Hungarian Coins and Medals from the earliest Period of the History of the Country to the present Time. By Schœnœiesner.* 4to. *with* 20 *Plates.* Ofen.

The oldest work on this subject is by father Simonchich, de Numismatica Ungariæ diplomaticæ accommodata, but which contains only the History of a Florin. The present author has employed twenty years in collecting, from different cabinets, the medals of the emperor and various distinguished Hungarian noblemen. Count Ignatius Bathiani, bishop of Transylvania, bought the manuscript, designing to print it at his own expence. For this purpose nineteen plates were engraved, when the prelate died. His successor returned the author his MS. and the plates already engraved. The author corrected his work, and again sold it to the university, who added another plate.

The first chapter is on the coins of the ancient nations of Hungary. In this the author treats of the *Atlantic* coins, the Grecian, Barbarian, Roman, Byzantine, and Franconian, previous to the arrival of the Hungarians. He next speaks of the treasures found in Hungary in 1797 and 1799. The second dissertation is entitled, De Re Numaria Hungarorum, sub ducibus, et regibus periodi primæ ab anno 900 to 1301. No coins struck under the dukes exist. Of the earliest period some large ones are found; and under Ladislaus I. some smaller ones: the copper coins are later. The second period, the subject of the third dissertation, extends from 1301 to 1526; the third, included in the fourth dissertation, from 1527 to 1800. The fifth dissertation is, de nummis principum Transylvaniæ, et aliis varii argumenti ad Hungariam hujusque provincias spectantes. One chapter particularly treats of the coins struck during the civil wars. The author asserts that France had a share in these troubles, and cites, as a proof, that Emeri Toekoelyi, while master of the cities of the mountains, engraved some badges with this inscription; Ludovicus XIV. Galliæ et Navar. rex patronus et protector Hungariæ.

The following chapter, de aliis varii argumenti nummis ad Hungariam hujusque provincias quoquo modo spectantibus, contains a description of several medals struck in Hungary in honour of some celebrated personages, and some literati of that kingdom and Transylvania.

## SWEDEN.

ART. 40.—*Antiquitets Lexicon, &c.*

*Dictionary of Antiquities. Vol. I. 4to.* Stockholm.

We have greatly abridged a copious title-page. The object of the work is a description and explanation of the institutions, manners, religion, and worship, of the Greeks, but more particularly of the Romans; with a description of their respective countries, the ancient and modern names of the places, and an account of their coins, weights, and measures, compared with those of Sweden. The genealogies of the Greek and Roman kings; of the consuls and emperors; and of the principal Greek and Roman poets, to assist the study of the classical authors.

The lexicographer, M. Olof Lindenborg, informs us, that he has employed twenty-five years in this work; that he has consulted more than 250 original authors, without including modern compilations, respecting antiquities; yet we think that many Latin terms to be found in every dictionary might have been omitted; as apotheca, alea, equito, &c. He might also have suppressed the lists of all the works of the authors quoted, as well as of the archons and of the consuls, from Junius Brutus, 509 years before the Christian era, to Basilius, 541 years afterwards. From the want of similar reflexions, the work will probably extend to five quarto volumes, and yet it is designed for the younger students.

ART. 41.—*Svenska Academiens, &c.*

*Memoirs of the Swedish Academy for the Year* 1786. *Part I.* 8*vo.* Stockholm.

It is only necessary to announce this work. The memoirs of the academy, instituted in 1786, were published in large quarto: but the form was altered in 1796 to an octavo; and the present re-publication is designed to render the whole series uniform. It is needless at this distance of time to enlarge on its contents.

ART. 42.—*Quatuor Monumente, &c.*

*Four Brass Monuments dug up in Sweden, represented on Copper Plate, with a brief Commentary on Cufic Literature. By J. Hallenberg. 4to.* Stockholm.

This work is dedicated to the king of Sweden, printed with great magnificence, and adorned with four plates. The first and most considerable part relates to some monuments found two miles from Stockholm, in 1800, under a large stone on the top of a small mountain. The monuments, represented in the plates of their natural size, and accompanied with learned dissertations, consist, 1. of a copper bracelet of a spiral form. We find from Herodotus, Ammianus, Dion Chrysostom, Livy, and Valerius Maximus, that the Persians, the Romans, and afterwards the Greeks, wore these bracelets. The second and third monuments are two lacrymal vases with handles, the coverlid pointed, and the base conical. M. Oberlin has described some of these in the Museum Shoepstini, and supposes them to be hatchets, or cutting instruments; an opinion refuted by our author, who shows them to be two lacrymal phials. He thinks that these phials were brought to Sweden by some foreign navigators initiated in the worship of Samothrace, and who revered, as tutelar divinities, the Dioscuri, the Cabiri, Castor, and Pollux. M. Hallenberg then engages in a learned dissertation on the Cabiri, who were, he thinks, so called from Cabira, the daughter of Protheus. The fourth relic was an instrument resembling a crooked razor, or rather a sickle. This instrument seems to have been brought by the same visitants or colonists, since the navigators initiated in the mysteries of Samothrace, made a vow to cut off their hair, and sacrifice it to the gods of the sea, when in danger of shipwreck. The instrument is composed of copper and tin, to which, Pliny tells us, a temper of extraordinary hardness may be given.

The second part contains a description of some Arabian coins. It is a kind of supplement to a work published by the author in 1800, entitled Collectio nummorum Cuficorum, ære expressorum, addita eorum Interpretatione, subjunctoque alphabeto Cufico, 8vo. with ten plates. The Cufic coin figured in the title represents a head adorned with a diadem, of which many have been found, notwithstanding the Mohammedans were unwilling to represent human figures on their coins. The inscription on the exergue is a little effaced, but seems to mean Benedicat Deus. This coin was struck in honour of the calif Almonstadi at Aleppo.

Professor Porthan sent the author some Samanidic coins found in Finland, of which he here gives the description.

It is followed by another copper coin very rare; on one side of which is Mohammed Legalus Dei, and on the other, Deus Unus, Deus Æternus; and on the exergue (non est Deus), nisi unicus, nec est socuis illi. It seems to have been struck under the califs Ommiades. The work is concluded by a Latin letter from M. Tyschen to the author, on occasion of sending to him the 'collection' just mentioned.

## DENMARK.

ART. 43.—*Comparatio inter commoda, &c.*

*Comparison of the Advantages and Disadvantages resulting from public and private Education. By H. B. Melchior.* 8vo. Copenhagen.

We notice the present work as containing the sentiments of an enlightened Dane on this disputed question. He thinks each mode has its peculiar advantages, and that neither ought to be exclusively adopted. Private education is best adapted to infancy, and public to a more advanced age; while the advantages of both, he thinks, are balanced, and in some degree combined, in small domestic seminaries.

## SCLAVONIA.

ART. 44.—*Musa se Slowenskych, &c.*

*The Muse of the Sclavonian Mountains. Number I.* 8vo.

No place of publication is affixed to this volume; but we have arranged it from the language employed, and have noticed it from its novelty and singularity. The author is M. George Palkovitz, and the contents of this number are twenty poems and songs, partly translations, and partly of Sclavonian origin. Of the former kind, we remark a poetical version of the first book of Homer from the original Greek. The dialect employed is equally related to the Bohemian and Sclavonian, so that each nation can read it with ease. The Song of the Labourer is distinguished by pleasing ideas and an easy versification. It is another Farmer's Boy, with different scenes and objects; but, as literature and taste have made a small progress among those to whom the language is familiar, the author's success is problematical.

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